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TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS AND STUDENTS' MOTIVATION IN FINNISH ISLAMIC EDUCATION PUBLIC CLASSROOMS

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Only one type of Islam course, General Islam, is taught for Muslim students of various backgrounds in Finnish public schools. There are not enough teachers for this course and currently their relevant teaching qualifications are hard to be ensured. With such challenges, how these teachers make pedagogical choices and how does it influence students' motivation are questions yet to be dealt with in current literature on Finnish religious education (Rissanen, 2014). So, this study aims to examine the provision of teacher support to students, how students perceive such support and how they affect students' motivation to study in Finnish Islamic Education (IE) courses. Teachers' provision and students' perception of teacher support and their motivational outcomes are studied from social support perspectives by using Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support (Wentzel, 2004), and with Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The author conducted a qualitative case study in an IE course in a local public international school. Participants are five foreign-background 8-12 years old Muslim students from primary and secondary education programs, and one female teacher of an immigrant background who teaches these students IE class. The author collected qualitative data from semi-structured interviews. By combining approaches from grounded theory and thematic analysis, the author analyzed the data and gained insights into the kind of support available to students from teacher in the targeted context; how it fosters students' classroom goal pursuit; how it affects students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The result shows that the teacher provided a good amount of structure, help, advice, instruction, clear expectations, opportunities, clear communication, and emotional support, but autonomy support was insufficient; student participants 1 and 2 have better perceptions of teacher support than student participants 3, 4, and 5; such difference is in line with their motivational outcomes with student participants 1 and 2 demonstrating stronger motivations in terms of classroom goal pursuit and having higher intrinsic motivation or better integration than the rest of the student participants. The results also indicate there could be other factors influencing students' motivations. Such results provide valuable insights for IE teacher training programs and for future empirical studies regarding this context.

Keywords: Finnish Islamic Education, social support theories, self-determination theory, provision and perception of teacher support, classroom goal pursuit, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation.

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1 Introduction

In Finnish public education system, according to the Freedom of Religious Act (Uskonnonvapauslaki, 2003), when a certain number of students in the same area belong to the same religious group, they have the right to receive religious education according to their own tradition. In other words, a single-faith approach is taken (Rissanen, 2014). This is also true in the case of the increasing and visible Muslim population in Finland and the organization of Islamic Education (IE) in public schools. The Muslim population in Finland is plural and heterogenous nowadays, but only one type of Islamic Education which is called "general Islam" is being taught at schools due to practical limitations (Sakaranaho, 2006). Combined with the fact that teaching Islam in Finnish public schools is a relatively new phenomenon, numerous challenges arise in this field: the teaching material is not sufficient, there is a lack of teachers who have to work for different schools at the same time, heterogeneity of the classes is vast and sometimes the parents of Muslim students have high demand and expectations (Sakaranaho, 2006). These problems are further complicated by the fact that it is hard to ensure the minority religious education teachers' qualifications in Finland, especially in the case of IE teachers, as their opportunity to study in the newly established teacher education program at the University of Helsinki for such teachers is undermined because of a lack of the required language skills and a basic education; on top of it, in Finland, there are no chairs for Islamic Studies at the moment (Rissanen, 2014).

Still, in the face of these challenges, IE teachers in Finnish public schools have a demanding role to play. Rissanen (2014) reports in her dissertation that these teachers need to facilitate discussions on ethical issues without offending students or parents while taking into account principles from different ideological frameworks. She also notes that, with this responsibility on their shoulders, some seemingly unintentional pedagogical choices of the teachers can undermine the quality of the support they provide to their students. So, she concludes that religious teachers' continual making of pedagogical choices is a critical aspect of successful religious education, and she recommends that the role of religious education teachers in the classroom in mediating the crucial negotiations that take place in their students' lives should be given the focus of attention.

So far, there are quite a few studies that look into Finnish religious education from different perspectives (Kallioniemi & Ubani, 2012; Lyhykäinen, 2009; Matilainen, 2011; Matilainen & Kallioniemi, 2012; Poulter, 2013; Sakaranaho, 2013). Several studies have provided overviews of the Finnish approach to religious education including its challenges (Kallioniemi & Ubani, 2012; Sakaranaho, 2013). Kallioniemi and Ubani (2012) define the nature of religious education to be integrative subject that foster critical and ethical thinking in a postmodern multi-religious society.

Lyhykäinen (2009) found the emphasis given by orthodox teacher on the development of students' religious identities. The connections of Finnish religious education to human rights education (Matilainen, 2011; Matilainen & Kallioniemi, 2012) and citizenship education (Poulter, 2013) were also studied.

Given these findings about Finnish religious education, there is a gap in studies concerning the realities of the classroom practices and students' motivation to learn in religious education. Other studies concerning teacher-student relationships in Islamic Education deal with the philosophical foundations of such relationships (Alavi, 2007; Cook, 2010), and the nature of such teacher-student interaction as based on sympathy, care, mutual understanding, cooperation and common respect uphold in the Islamic History of Education and its modern degradation in the context of Malaysian schools (Zulqarnian, 2017). Clearly, there is a lack of investigation into teacher-student relationships or interaction in the context of Finnish Islamic Education public classrooms. There is a growing consensus on the significance of teacher-student relationships in students' motivation and engagement in learning (Becker& Luthar, 2002; Pianta, Hamre,& Stuhlman, 2003; Stipek, 2004). It is believed that when teachers "develop relationships with students that are emotionally close, safe, and trusting, that provide access to instrumental help, and that foster a more general ethos of community and caring in classrooms" (Wentzel, 2016, p. 211), the teacher-student relationships will have the effective quality to support students' emotional wellbeing, positive self-concepts, social and academic motivational orientations, and formation of actual social and academic skills (Wentzel, 2016).

However, what the quality of interaction between teacher and students marked by the provision of teacher support is, and what impact such relationships have on students' motivation to participate and study in Finnish Islamic Education classrooms are questions yet to be dealt with. Therefore, the current study will add to the body of empirical studies on Finnish religious education, or more specifically, Finnish IE in public schools, by investigating the role of IE teacher in their classroom practices through their pedagogical choices. Moreover, in the face of so many challenges in this type of classrooms as mentioned above, how motivated and engaged students are in learning this subject would be one of the many questions that could arise. This will ensue yet another question: how are IE teachers supporting the motivations of students to learn in their classrooms despite above mentioned challenges?

According to Wentzel (2016), for the time being, three models are prevailing in guiding work on teacher-student relationships. They are attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969; Bretherton, 1987), social

support perspectives (e.g., Sarason, Sarason, & Pierce, 1990; Wentzel, 2004), and self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The current study takes the perspectives of the latter two models due to their closer relevance with the context of this study.

Social support perspectives recognize the centrality of teachers' positive emotional support in students' motivational context (Cohen& Wills, 1985; Sarason et al., 1990; Wentzel, 2016). However, from social support perspectives, relationships are seen as personal resources that can be highly familiar and longer-lasting or relatively less personal and more transient rather than only stable interactions of a long period of time (Wentzel, 2016). Wentzel (2004) broadens the range of teacher supports to encompass predictability and structure, instrumental help, guarantee for the emotional and physical well- being in the learning environment, in addition to nurturing emotional support, in order to effectively motivate students academically and socially.

Self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) posits that students' academic and social motivation are the outcomes of having their basic psychological needs for relatedness, competence, and autonomy satisfied. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), these basic needs are defined as universal in its role of enabling or suppressing healthy development and psychological wellbeing, making them relevant in all social contexts including educational settings. Teacher-student relationship is one of such educational contexts where the satisfaction or frustration of students' basic psychological needs can facilitate or thwarting their intrinsic motivation and integration.

Islamic Education is only one of the many subjects in Finnish public schools, and it is also assumed to be secondary to other more important and universal subjects. So, one assumption of the current study would be that the nature of the teacher-student relationships in IE classrooms are more short-term and less personal. There is also an interest in learning about the type of motivation in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation students display in studying this subject. The aim of the current research is to study the role of teacher-student relationships in terms of teacher's provision of support to students in students' motivation to pursue social and academic goals and in the degree to which students are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to study this course in Finnish IE classrooms by using models of social support and self-determination theory.

2 Theoretical Framework

This research focuses on two theoretical concepts: teacher-student relationships in terms of the teacher support as provided by the teacher and perceived by the students, and students' motivational outcomes manifested as classroom goal pursuit, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. The teacher support received by students will be studied from two perspectives: 1) by using the social support perspectives so that the possible existence of multiple dimensions of support can be examined; 2) and by applying the perspective of self-determination theory to see whether students' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are met. Students' motivational outcomes are also approached through the lens of social support perspectives and self-determination theory, so the focus is on students' classroom goal pursuit, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. This chapter provides an overview of these concepts and theories.

2.1 Teacher-Student Relationships

It is agreed in the scientific community that the nature and quality of students' experiences of interactions and relationships with their teachers have a great impact on how motivated and engaged they are in their learning (Becker& Luthar, 2002; Pianta, et al., 2003; Stipek, 2004). According to Wentzel (2016), effective teachers are described to be able to maintain emotionally close, caring and trusting relationships with their students that give the latter a sense of safety, to be ready to give instrumental help to their students, and to be willing to engage in constructing the classrooms as a caring community. It is believed that such quality teacher-student relationships can support students' healthy emotional development and the formation of a positive sense of self, and motivate them to aim at social and academic accomplishments. The current major theoretical models for studying teacher-student relationships typically use a causal approach, placing a central importance on the role of affective quality of such relationships in students' motivation (Wentzel, 2016). Among such models are models of social support (e.g., Sarason, et al., 1990; Wentzel, 2004). Following is a review of these perspectives.

2.1.1 Social Support Perspectives

Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support

According to earlier models of social support, the affective quality of teacher support can have a central significance in students' adjustment to school (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Sarason et al., 1990). Mental representations of teacher-student relationships on the part of the students are studied as the focus by the models of social support, because the perceived support is seen as a cushion against

stress and anxiety (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Sarason et al., 1990). Sarason et al. (1990) believe that students' subjective appraisal of positive emotional support can bring about results related to secure attachment, including perceived competence, social skills, and coping. But this can also happen in relatively more temporary and impersonal teacher-student relationships, as opposed to the confinement of long-term, highly familiar and stable relationships as suggested by Attachment Theory (Wentzel, 2016).

As a further development in the social support perspectives, Wentzel (2002) expands the range of supports, based on models of parent socialization (e.g., Baumrind, 1971; Darling & Steinberg, 1993), that are required to motivate and engage students in the academic and social life of classrooms to include predictability and structure, instrumental assistance, and a care for both emotional and physical well-being.

On the basis of person-environment fit and personal goal setting perspectives (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1989; Eccles & Midgley, 1989; Ford, 1992), Wentzel (2004) gives more specific descriptions of the mechanisms behind teacher-student interactions along these dimensions in promoting students' motivation and performance. According to Bronfenbrenner (1989), Eccles and Midgley (1989), and Ford (1992), a healthy classroom functioning refers to competence within context. Wentzel (2004) further defines classroom competence, based on the above notion, as "a set of context-specific outcomes, reflecting the degree to which students are able to meet the social demands of the classroom as well as pursue their own personal goals" (p. 214). Since she believes in this notion of "competence within context" (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1989; Eccles & Midgley, 1989; Ford, 1992), she (2004) applies it to describe competent students as those 1) who achieve both personal and social goals that are sanctioned by their teacher and peers; 2) whose pursuit of such goals can bring about not only social integration but also positive personal developmental outcomes. She further argues based on the same notion that such competence of students relies not only on their personal attributes, i.e. self-processes, but also on contextual supports, i.e. social-motivational processes. Figure 1 by Wentzel (2004) is a demonstration of these processes and their relations with students' goal pursuit.

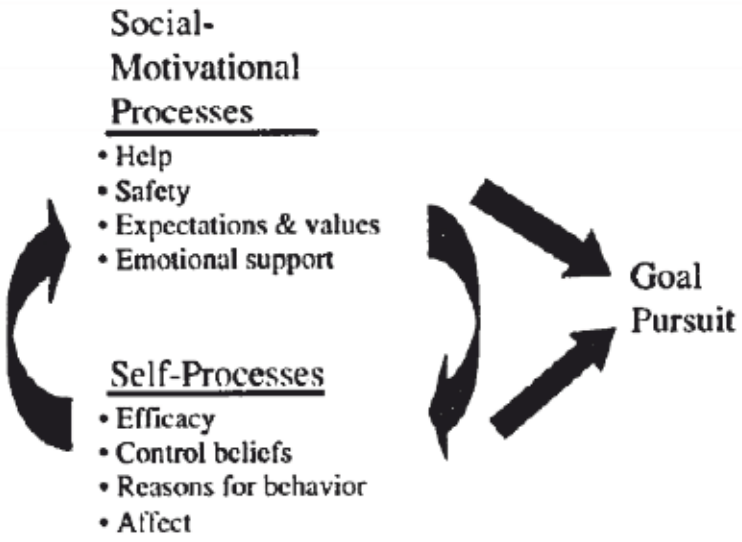

Figure 1. Social-Motivational and Self-Processes that contribute to classroom competence (Wentzel, 2004).

From this perspective, teacher-student relationships are regarded as one example of such contextual supports that have motivational significance, when students are made to have a sense of social support and relatedness by feeling important and valued in the classroom (Wentzel, 2004). In order to achieve such motivational outcomes, one needs to understand the crucial aspects of classroom climate that foster these outcomes, which requires an extension of our conception of the inherent belief systems behind such sense of relatedness (Wentzel, 2004). A set of such beliefs that evaluate social relationships and contexts and have an influence in choices for an engagement in goal pursuit is described by Ford (1992). He (1992) contents that within specific contexts, individuals assess the consistency of their personal goals with those of others, the extent to which the necessary information and resources needed to achieve one's goals are made accessible by others, and the degree to which relationships with others can provide emotional supports which are crucial for goal pursuit. Based on this understanding of the critical belief systems that are demonstrated in a sense of relatedness, Wentzel (2004) characterizes teachers' providing of the opportunities for the pursuit of social and academic goals along multiple dimensions of social support:

> Based on this formulation, students should engage in positive social and academic activities when they perceive the classroom as a place that provides opportunities to achieve social and academic goals; as a safe and responsive environment; as a place that facilitates the achievement of goals by providing help, advice, and instruction; and a place that is emotionally supportive and nurturing. (p. 218)

Empirical Support for Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support

First, there is a plethora of empirical studies that assess each one of the dimensions of teacher support.

1. Providing Help, Advice, and Instruction

According to Wentzel (2004), it is a routine job of a teacher to provide pupils with resources that facilitate the growth of their academic and social competencies, which include "information and advice, modeled behavior, or specific experiences that facilitate learning" (p. 218). Teachers' central role is to pass on knowledge and train students in the academic subject areas. Instructions also include the promotion of behavioral competencies through classroom management measures (Doyle, 1986; Wentzel, 2004), and by managing classroom goal structures so that the pursuit of certain goals are preferred and facilitated than the pursuit of others (Ames & Ames, 1984; Cohen, 1986; Solomon, Schaps, Watson, & Battistich, 1992; Wentzel, 2004).

2. Providing Expectations, Opportunities and Clear Communications

Several studies record the teachers' expectations for their students. In one study (Wentzel, 2000), middle school teachers described their "ideal" students to have socially integrative traits like sharing, caring, and rules observant; to have motivational qualities for learning including persistence, diligence, inquisitiveness, intrinsic interest; and to demonstrate good performance in the form of grades, retention of information, and the completion of assignments. Other research document teachers' expectations for their students' behavioral conducts, which includes impulse control, ability to solve problems in a mature way, cooperativeness and courtesy when interacting with peers, active participation in class activities, responsiveness and sensitivity to the appropriateness of behavior according to the contexts (Brophy & Good, 1974; Feshbach, 1969; Helton & Oakland, 1977; Trenholm & Rose, 1981).

To what extent students pursue goals sanctioned by teachers is closely related to the clarity and consistency of teachers' communications about their values and expectations on classroom behavior and performance (Gettinger & Kohler, 2006; Wentzel, 2002). In the elementary and secondary classroom settings, positive academic and social outcomes can be predicted based on the availability of the support of this dimension (Wentzel, 2016). One study (Hargreaves, Hester, & Mellor, 1975) finds that communications of expectations are the active practices of teacher whatever their instructional goals, teaching styles, and ethnicities are. It is found that such communications of expectations by the teachers can influence students' academic self-efficacy (Weinstein, 2002).

Minority students and students of lower socio-economic backgrounds are often targeted with more negative and lower expectations by teachers (e.g., Oates, 2003; Weinstein, Gregory, & Strambler, 2004). Students' are found to display conformity to teachers' expectations by changing their performance (Weinstein, 2002). This is proved to be truer with students of older age groups (Valeski & Stipek, 2001). The positive effect of boosting students' achievements by overestimations of competence by teachers is found to be stronger than the negative effect of suppressing achievement due to underestimation by them, especially in the case of low- performing students (Madon, Jussim, & Eccles, 1997). However, these is a need for more examinations into the direct impact of teachers' communications of expectations on students' motivation (Jussim, Robustelli, & Cain, 2009; Wentzel, 2016).

3. Providing a Safe and Responsive Environment

Crosnoe, Johnson, and Elder (2004) find that the feeling of safety at school by students is a precondition of them enjoying affectively positive relationships with teachers. Another study (Elliott, Hamburg, & Williams, 1998) also reveals school-level violence can have a huge influence on students. Teachers' responsiveness to students' needs for security and their efforts to ensure pupils' physical well-being are regarded as an additional aspect of teachers' emotional support, which has the potential to engage students' in classroom activities valued by teachers (Wentzel, 2016). Olweus (1993) argue for the centrality of teachers' role in creating classrooms free of peer harassment and in mitigating the negative impacts of occurred harassment.

Responsive teachers are described as being ready to provide consistent enforcement of rules, expectations for self-reliance and self-control based on students' ages, and solicitations of pupils' opinions and feelings (e.g., Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Wentzel, 2002). When teachers are responsive as such, students tend to form a stronger sense of belonging, demonstrate more socially competent behaviors, and increase academic competence (Schaps, Battistich, & Solomon, 1997; Watson, Solomon, Battistich, Schaps, & Solomon, 1989).

4. Providing Emotional Support

The significance of emotional rapport between teachers and students are emphasized as the cause for students' motivational outcomes by attachment theory, social support perspectives, and self-determination theory based on mostly correlational findings (Wentzel, 2016). Students' perceptions of emotional support from their teacher are found to be related to motivational outcomes such as mastery and performance goal orientation, prosocial and responsible behavior, aspirations and values

for educational achievements, interest, engagement and positive self-efficacy (Danielsen, Breivik, & Wold, 2011; Goodenow, 1993; Harter, 1996; Ibanez, Kuperminc, Jurkovic,& Perilla, 2004; Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989; Murdock & Miller, 2003; Perry, Liu, & Pabian, 2010; Reyes, Brackett, Rivers, White, & Salovey, 2012; Sakiz, Pape, & Wool-folk Hoy, 2012; Sanchez, Colon, & Esparza, 2005; Valeski & Stipek, 2001; Wang & Eccles, 2013; Wentzel, 1994, 1997, 1998, 2003; Wentzel, Battle, Russell, & Looney, 2010). In kindergarten, emotional closeness between children and care-givers is positively related to children's school liking (Birch & Ladd, 1997). Experiences of anxiety and depression among late elementary school students are found to be related to negative emotional relationships with their teachers (Murray & Greenberg, 2000). In the same age group, students' emotional functioning and engagement over time can be predicted with the presence of teacher involvement (Arbeau, Coplan, & Weeks, 2010; Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Pupils' demonstration of risky behaviors are also proved to be one of the consequences of negative affective relationships between students and teachers (Rudasill, Reio, Stipanovic, & Taylor, 2010). Students' integration and internalization of teachers' values and a positive social self-image are found to be related to positive emotional relationships with their teachers.

In middle schools, the quality of students' affective relationships with teachers have been related to a scope of motivational processes such as academic effort, perceiving autonomy and control, self-assurance, positive self-regulatory skills (Danielsen et al., 2011; Ryan, Stiller, & Lynch, 1994; Sakiz et al., 2012; Zimmer-Gembeck & Locke, 2007).

Furthermore, a number of the empirical studies assess several dimensions of teacher support simultaneously. Differential effects as a function of dimension and the motivational outcomes are studied widely (Arbeau et al., 2010; Curby, Rimm-Kaufman, & Ponitz, 2009; Hamre et al., 2012; Isakson & Jarvis, 1999; Marchant, Paulson, & Rothlisberg, 2001; Murray, 2009; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Wentzel, 2002; Wentzel, Battle, & Looney, 2007; Wentzel et al., 2010; Wilson & Hughes, 2006). Among them, Wentzel et al. (2010) recorded special relations of teachers' communicating clear expectations, providing classroom safety, instrumental help, and emotional closeness to students' interest in class activity and prosocial efforts. Murray (2009) reported that three dimensions of the student-teacher relationship, i.e. closeness-trust, positive involvement, and unclear communications of expectations, demonstrate differential links with students' self-reported motivation. Skinner and Belmont (1993) also found significant relations between teachers' involvement and provision of structure in the form of clear expectations and instrumental help, etc. and students' engagement in class.

2.1.2 Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) primarily concerns the social conditions which promote and impede human flourishing (Ryan & Deci, 2017). SDT assumes that it is a human nature to learn and develop, which is reflected in two natural tendencies, i.e. *intrinsic motivation*, which is defined as the spontaneous inclination and energy to engage in perceived challenging and interesting behaviors, and *integration*, the propensity to internalize social practices and rules even when they don't find them interesting (Ryan & Deci, 2016). The support and suppression of these two innate tendencies can happen based on the social conditions, which has an impact on self-motivation and growth (Ryan & Deci, 2016). According to them (2016), one of the central positions of SDT is that humans have *basic psychological needs*, i.e. autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and that the satisfying these needs facilitate intrinsic motivation, integration and well-being, and depriving such satisfaction thwart these processes and outcomes. These basic psychological needs are regarded as universal (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and can be applied to all social contexts, including educational settings (Ryan & Deci, 2016). Teacher-student relationships are one of such contextual conditions. Social involvement between teachers and students and the corresponding sense of relatedness of the latter, availability of structure, and provision of autonomy and choice are regarded as essential to the process of satisfying students' needs for relatedness, competence and autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Wentzel, 2016).

According to Wentzel (2016), teachers' expressions of interest in their pupils' well-being and provisions of emotional support are the typical ways to demonstrate interpersonal involvement. A sense of relatedness (i.e. a sense of security and belongingness) on the part of the students is believed to be the result which aids students to internalize goals and interests valued by teachers and to have the willingness to improve the overall functioning of the class as a social group. Teacher involvement has been examined to have an impact on students' motivational engagement in terms of effort and interest (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Skinner & Belmont, 1993).

According to Ryan and Deci (2016), provision of structure and autonomy support in schools are essential in facilitating deeper engagement and higher-quality learning. Ryan and Deci (2016) defines structure as organizing environment in order to facilitate competence. According to them (2016), structure needs to provide "clear expectations and goals, accessible paths for achieving them, consistency in rules and guidelines, and rich feedback regarding effectiveness" (p.106), coinciding with some of the aspects of multiple dimensions of social support (Wentzel, 2004).

However, in order for the structure to have desirable effects, it also has to be delivered in autonomy-supportive ways rather than controlling ways (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). This requires understanding and relating to students from their own perspectives on the part of the teacher (Ryan & Deci, 2016). According to Ryan and Deci (2016), when autonomy support and structure are combined, relevant resources will be provided by the teacher with opportunities to gather information for themselves are made accessible for students; choices and options will be provided whenever it is possible and students will be encouraged to be active in leading their own learning processes (see, e.g., Ryan & La Guardia, 1999); whenever it is necessary to set any limits, students' opinions and perspectives will be taken into account, alternatives and choices will be granted, and meanwhile standards will still be uphold (Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri, & Holt, 1984). On the contrary, controlling teachers make much less effort to understand students' opinions and feelings and only relate to them from the teachers' perspective; they arbitrarily require students to think, feel, or behave in certain ways; they use external means such as rewards and evaluations to try to motivate students, leaving much less, if any, space for internal motivation for students; limits are set through external controls without taking into consideration students' views (Ryan & Deci, 2016).

Empirical support for autonomy-supportive teaching can be found in several studies that focus on the speech and behaviors of autonomy-supportive teachers (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999), the relation of teachers' autonomy-supportive behaviors to students' autonomous motivation (Reeve & Jang, 2006), the relation of teachers' controlling behaviors to less student autonomy (Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymon, & Roth, 2005)

2.2 Students' Motivational Outcomes

In this section, the motivational outcomes of teacher-student relationships in terms of teacher support will be discussed. The motivational outcomes of multiple dimensions of social support will be approached from the perspective of classroom goal pursuit based on a model of classroom competence. The motivational outcomes of teacher support that reflect the application of self-determination theory will be studied in terms of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

2.2.1 Classroom Goal Pursuit

Personal goal-setting and its potential to motivate behaviors are major focuses of motivational theory (Austin & Vancouver, 1996; Bandura, 1986; Dweck, 1991; Pervin, 1983). Goals are understood by theorists as "cognitive representations of desired future outcomes" (Wentzel, 2004, p. 216). Goals related to education have been studied from two different points of view. First, goals are seen as motivational orientations which direct students' behavioral responses towards opportunities and

difficulties (Dweck, 2002; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Nicholls, 1984). Two assumed results of these orientations are the performance goal orientations (i.e. learning to *demonstrate* competence) and learning goal orientations (i.e. learning to *gain* competence), both of which are believed to be context-independent (see Dweck, 2002). Second, goals have been examined in terms of their content, as well as the pursuit of which resulting in context- specific achievements (Ford, 1982; 1992; Wentzel, 1991a, b, 1993a, 2002b). This approach put emphases on studying the recurrence of efforts to pursue certain goals and the link between goal pursuit and social and academic competencies at school. The current study focuses on the second perspective which is goal content perspective.

As mentioned above, in order to achieve competence, one needs to pursue both social and personal goals. According to Ford (1992), social goals include establishment of personal relationships with teachers or peers, obtaining approval from other people, demonstration of cooperative and responsible behaviors with peers; while academic goals are task-related, e.g. mastery of subject matters, meeting specific standards of performance, cognitive engagement in creative thinking, and satisfaction of intellectual curiosity and challenge. Wentzel (2004) defines goals as "a cognitive representation of what an individual is trying to achieve in a given situation" (p.217). She focuses on pupils' pursuit of social goals to be prosocial (i.e. to help, share, and cooperate) and socially responsible (i.e. to follow rules, keep commitments), and their pursuit of academic goals to master and perform well. Senko (2016) defined the pursuit of mastery goals as " a desire to *develop* competence by improving or learning as much as one can" (p.75). He further states that it entails self- referential standards (i.e. the feeling of learning something new and gaining skills) or task-based standards (e.g. having met certain criteria for accomplishment of a task) for defining success. Wentzel (1993a) argues that people pursue master goals simply for the sake of mastering and learning new things. However, performance goals pursuit is defined to be "a desire to *demonstrate* existing competence by outperforming peers or matching their success with less effort"(Senko, 2016, p.75). Normative standards (i.e. ranking) are used to define success among people who pursue such goals (Senko, 2016). Wentzel (1993a) defines performance goals, or evaluation goals, as "attempts to receive positive evaluations of the self or of the academic work" (p.10). This study takes this goal content perspective as suggested by Wentzel (2004). There are plenty of empirical support to this perspective. Pursuing social goals of being prosocial and socially responsible have consistently positive relation to demonstration of such behaviors (Wentzel, 1991a, 1994a). Pursuits of mastery and performance goals are found to be related to academic grades (Wentzel, 1993a). Pupils pursuing both social and academic goals are found to be successful in terms of academic achievements, while pursuit of social goals is also positively related to academic performance and IQ (Wentzel, 1989, 1991a, 1993a, 1996, 1997, 1998)

2.2.2 Intrinsic Motivation and Continuum of Internalization

Intrinsic motivation refers to the incentives to engage in certain tasks which are of pure enjoyment and inherent interest in them (Ryan & Deci, 2016). In contrast to intrinsic motivation is extrinsic motivation, which is defined to be "represented by behaviors that are instrumental for some separable consequence such as an external reward or social approval, avoidance of punishment, or the attainment of a valued outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 14). Intrinsically motivated behaviors are characterized by their autonomy, volition, and emanation from the self (de Charms, 1968; Ryan & Deci, 2017). On the contrary, based on the extent to which behaviors are autonomous and controlled, the degree of extrinsic motivation varies (Ryan & Connell, 1989; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Therefore, there is a continuum of internalization when it comes to extrinsic motivation based on a differentiated view of it (Ryan, Connell, & Deci, 1985). Figure 2 by Ryan and Deci (2016) presents a clear demonstration of this concept.

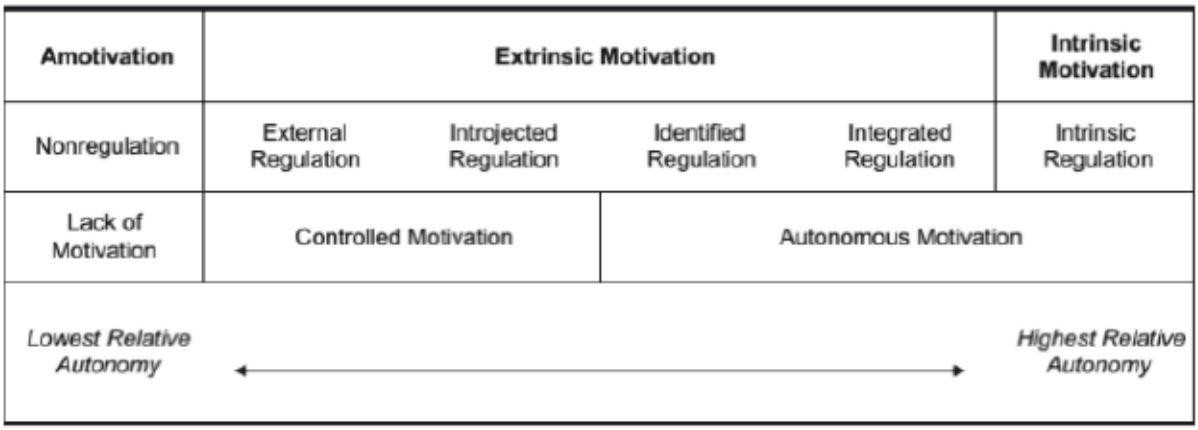

Figure 2. The SDT Continuum of Relative Autonomy, Showing Types of Motivation, Types of Regulation, and the Degree of Relative Autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2016)

According to this continuum, regulation of behaviors is internalized differentially, hence the degree of autonomy varies, which results in four types of extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2016). If placed in the order from more controlled motivation to more autonomous motivation, they are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, integrated regulation. *External regulation* refers to actions done in pursuit of a reward or in avoidance of a punishment. These behaviors are initiated and regulated externally, and thus they are relatively more controlled. *Introjected regulation* in concerned with partial internalization of external regulations through internal rewards of pride and

ego-inflation for accomplishments as well as anticipations of shame or guilt for possible failures. This type of extrinsic motivation is pressured and self-controlled, because the self-esteem of the individual becomes contingent upon outcomes and there is an involvement of the ego (Nicholls, 1984; Ryan, 1982). Therefore, there is still more control than autonomy for this type of regulation. The third type of extrinsic motivation is *identified regulation*, in which a personal identification with the value of a certain behavior take place. In this case, the individual under this regulation will internalize and accept it as their own to a greater extent. This time, the regulation becomes a relatively autonomous one due to the feelings of volition and self- endorsement people have because of this identification. The fourth type of extrinsic motivation, *integrated regulation*, is the most autonomous one. In this regulation, apart from the identification with the value of a certain behavior, integration of the value with the individual's other values, interests and beliefs also happen. Due to its quality of being fully volitional, it is also autonomous. In this sense, intrinsic motivation and integrated extrinsic motivation seem quite similar. Yet their difference lies in the basis that "intrinsic motivation is *interest* in the behaviors, whereas the basis of integrated regulation is *valuing* the behaviors for what they yield" (Ryan & Deci, 2016, p.102).

The empirical research that study and have found evidences for intrinsic motivation and continuum of internalization typically ask the reason why students do assignments and engage in classroom activities, and students are required to give their ratings about the degree to which they engage in these tasks for each type of motivation. Among these studies are Ryan and Connell (1989), Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon & Kaplan (2006), and Boiche & Stephan (2014).

3 Aim and Research Questions

The aim of the current research is to study the role of teacher-student relationships, as a motivational context, in affecting students' motivational outcomes. More specifically, through the lens of social support and self-determination theory, this study aims to look into how teacher's provision of support influence students' motivation to pursue social and academic goals and the degree to which students are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to study this course in Finnish IE classrooms.

Therefore, this research needs to answer the following questions:

1. What kind of support provided by teacher exist in the context of Finnish IE classrooms?
2. To what extent does the available teacher support foster students' classroom goal pursuit?
3. To what extent does the available teacher support influence students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation?

Due to the limited availability of the participants, this study is designed to be a qualitative case study by using semi-structured interviews with 1 IE teacher and 5 students from different age groups in a local international school with a focus placed on studying the complexity of the case rather than aiming at its generalizibility.

4 Methodologies

4.1 Context and Participants

The context of the study is an Islamic Education course in an international school in Northern Finland. The international school belongs to International Baccalaureate (IB) network. As one of the nine schools in Finland whose instruction language is English and that provide basic education, the international school taken as a context in this study runs IB Primary Years Program (PYP) and Middle Years Program (MYP), with students' ages ranging between 7 to 16 years old. Most of the students in this school are native to Finland, while there are around 20 different nationalities that make up the student body. The international school is especially favored by children of expatriates who migrate to Finland temporarily due to study or work. Unlike most of the IB schools around the world, the targeted school is run by the state, thus no tuition fee is collected from students, whether they are Finnish citizens or not.

The Islamic Education course run by the international school share the heterogeneity of the students of the school. Students have different ethnicities and language backgrounds including Finnish, English and Arabic. Their English level also varies based on their previous study backgrounds. For example, some start their schooling in English and thus have better command of the language, while others only have one-or-two years' experiences in an English-speaking international school previously. The targeted Islamic Education course also accommodates Muslim students from a nearby Finnish public school, so some of the students in the class only understand Finnish. Besides, due to the shortage of teachers and teaching resources, all Muslim students from the whole of Primary Years Program and the lower grades of Middle Years Program, i.e. from Grade 1 to Grade 6, are put in one IE class, while the rest of the MYP students of Grade 7 to 10 are put in another IE class taught by the same teacher with a different schedule, resulting in a big age range for a single classroom. On top of that, a minority of students in this class are Shia Muslims from the smaller denomination of Islam, while the majority are Sunni Muslims from the dominant denomination within the religion. Therefore, the targeted Islamic Education course is heterogeneous in terms of ethnicity, language, age range and religious beliefs, whereas it is taught by only one teacher in once-a-week sessions that last for 45 minutes.

The participants are 5 students and 1 subject teacher. Among the 5 students, 3 are girls while 2 are boys. Student interviewee 1 is a 14-year-old Malaysian girl and a MYP student who has been temporarily studying in the international school and the IE class for two years. From the new autumn

semester, she ended her study in the lower-grade IE class and started to join the higher-grade IE class with other students from MYP. The rest of the participants remain in the lower-grade IE class. Student interviewee 2 is a 10-year-old girl from Lebanon and a PYP student who has been temporarily studying in the school and the IE class for over one year. Student interviewee 3 is an 8-year-old Lebanese girl, a PYP student and a sister to student interviewee 2, who has over-one-year study experience in the international school and the IE class. Student interviewee 4 is a 12-year-old boy from Malaysia, a MYP student and a brother to student interviewee 1, whose temporary study in the international school and the IE course has lasted 2 years already. Student interviewee 5 is a 12-year-old boy from Jordan, a MYP student who has been studying in the school and the IE class for over a year. As for the teacher, she is an Egyptian immigrant who has been teaching IE course for more than 6 years. She speaks Arabic, English and Finnish. She is the only teacher in the international school who teaches IE class.

4.2 Data collection

The current study is designed to be a case study in order for the researcher to probe the complexity of the phenomenon (Bryman, 2012), but the inspection is also guided through the lens of specific theoretical framework. Therefore, I have chosen semi-structured interview as the viable option of data collection, because the interviews can be generally guided by an interview guide created based on the concepts and their relations in the theoretical framework of this study, while leaving plenty of leeway for the interviewees to reply for the sake of capturing unexpected emerging aspects of the phenomenon at hand (Bryman, 2012).

In order to fulfil the ethical requirements of academic studies, I first got the permission of the school principal, the subject teacher, students and their parents via emails, phone calls and text messages. I agree to guarantee anonymity of all participants and the school, hence in this paper, the city name is not specified either.

After receiving the permissions, I negotiated suitable meeting time for the interviews. Before the interviews were conducted, relevant empirical studies are reviewed, and an interview guide was formed based on the measures used in those studies. The interviews lasted for thirty minutes to one hour each and are recorded as audio files and later transcribed as texts, so the data comprises of 75 pages of interview transcripts.

As is shown in Figure 3, The Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support (Wentzel, 2004) yields four dimensions to be looked into in terms of teacher's provision of support to students, with each dimension having sub-concepts of their own. As for students' motivational outcomes, the model focus on two aspects with four more specific concepts to be studied. Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) gives out three aspects to be looked into in teacher's support to students. A number of the aspects overlaps with several concepts in the Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support, while others have their own specific concepts to look into. The theory is concerned with two major concepts of motivational outcomes, with each having their more specific aspects to be studied.

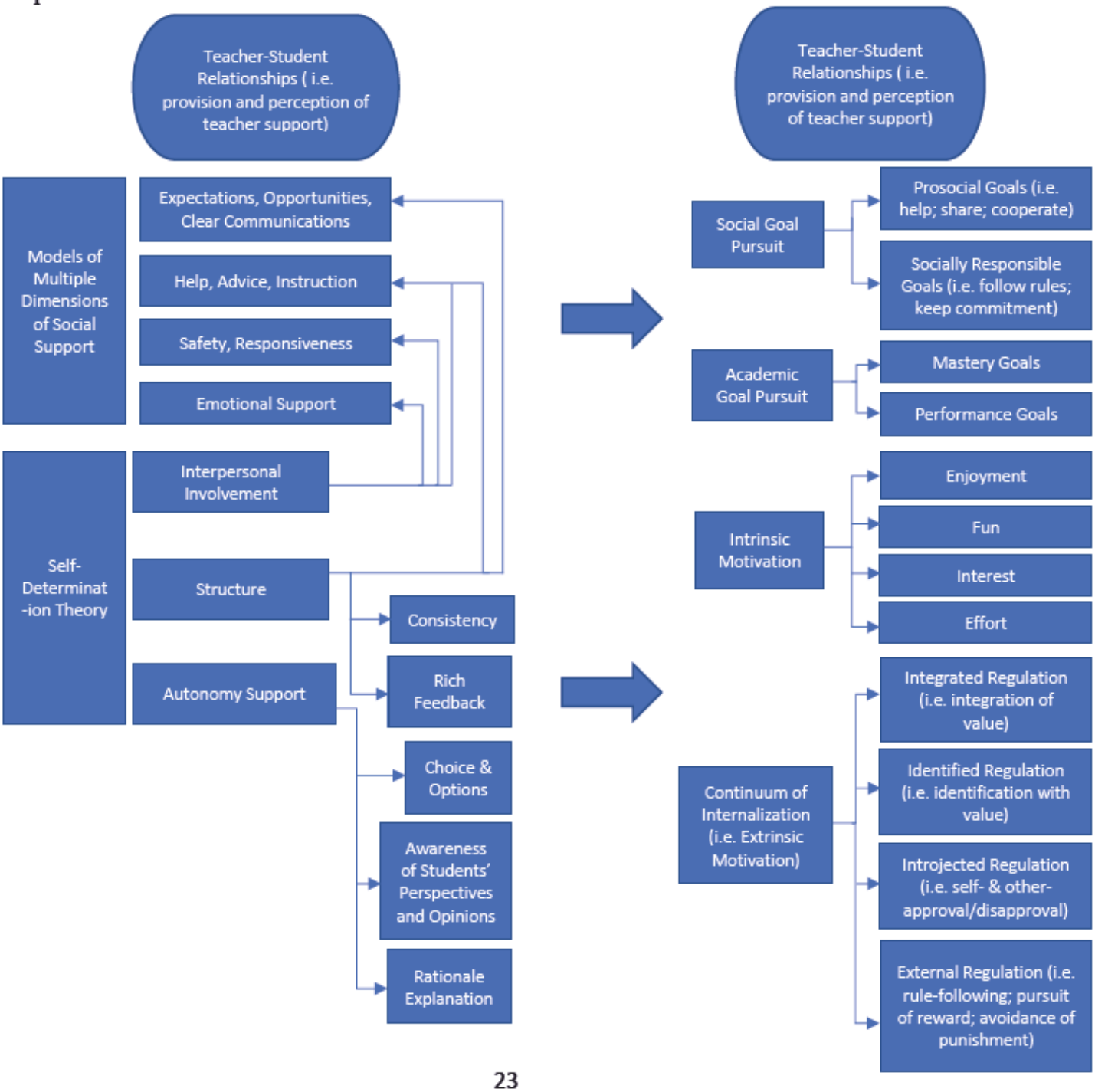

Figure 3. Theoretical concepts and their relations as used in this study

Fortunately, there are many empirical studies focusing on the same theories and concepts, which are all mentioned in section 2.1.1.3 and 2.1.2 in this paper. I studied the measures used by these empirical studies and picked out the ones relevant to current study. Some of them are modified according to the needs of this study, since most of the empirical studies are quantitative in nature and use questionnaire and surveys while the current study is qualitative and uses semi-structured interviews. Interview questions are formed based on these existing quantitative measures. For more specific information on measures, interview guide and their relationship with the concepts from the theoretical framework of the current study, see Appendices 1-4.

4.3 Data Analysis

Some approaches to grounded theory was used in relation to techniques of thematic analysis in coding the interview transcripts in this study. The coding is conveniently and accurately done via Nvivo.

First, initial coding, borrowed from grounded theory approach, is used to make sense of the data by creating detailed codes directly from the data with an open mind (Charmaz, 2006). For example, as an initial coding, the following response from student interview 1 is coded as "mixed feelings" and "problematic class arrangement", both of which are not specifically related to the existing theoretical framework that guides this research; the first initial code is re-categorized into other codes in the later phase of the data analysis, while the second initial code is kept as it is until the end:

> Interviewer: What is your feeling in IE class?
> Student interviewee 1: Half of me thinks that's fun. Half of me thinks that's pretty unfair, because I still feel bad for some people. They don't understand, because they mix all age groups together.

Then, as the second phase of coding based on Charmaz's approach to grounded theory (2006), selective or focused coding is applied. In this phase, by looking for repetitions and theory-related materials, as recommended by Ryan and Bernard (2003) in conducting thematic analysis, some of the initial codes are strengthened, dropped, merged into other codes or re-grouped into other categories as it usually happens with focused coding. In the case of the above-mentioned response

from student interviewee 1, the initial code "mixed feelings" is broken down into positive feelings and negative feelings and merged into two other codes and categories that are related to the theory, i.e. "satisfaction with class", and "dissatisfaction with class" under the category of "intrinsic motivation". After that, the codes are viewed both in terms of coverage, in order to probe the frequency of emergence of certain themes in participants' responses, and more specific content, in order not to lose sight of the complexity of the information obtained.

Looking for theory-related materials is the main technique used in this phase. In order to find theory-related materials, a coding frame is created in accordance with the conceptual framework and the interview guide (see, Appendix 1, 2, 3 & 4). These appendices consist of a clear lay-out of theoretical framework, concepts and sub-concepts based on theoretical framework, original indicator, interview questions, and modified indicator.

To take an example, in Appendix 1, under the theoretical framework, Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support (Wentzel, 2004), *social goal pursuit* is one of the motivational outcomes of students when they are provided with multiple dimensions of social support by their teacher. One of the *social goal pursuits* is to pursuit *social responsibility goals*, which is further divided as *peer social responsibility goals* and *academic social responsibility goals* (Wentzel, 1993, 1994a). The original indicator for *peer social responsibility goal pursuit* is "I often try to keep promises that I've made to other kids.", which results in the formation of the research question, "How often do you try to keep promises that you've made to other kids?", while the original indicator for *academic social responsibility goal pursuit* is "I often try to do what my teacher asks me to do.", which is the basis for the formation of the research question, "How often do you try to do what your teacher asks you to do?". There is no modified indicator for these sub-concepts under the theoretical framework, because it can be directly applied to the current research.

One example of modified indicator is to change "I like school very much." into "I like my Islamic Education course very much" as an indicator of *satisfaction with the class*, or more broadly, *intrinsic motivation*, which gives rise to the research question, "Do you like your Islamic Education course?"

5 Results

In this section, results from the semi-structure interviews with 5 student interviewee (SI) and 1 teacher interviewee (TI) will be presented in terms of: 1) teacher's provision of support to students; 2) students' motivational outcomes in terms of classroom goal pursuit; 3) students' motivational outcomes in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; 4) other findings. Tables display the coverage of each concept in interviewees' responses in order to see how frequently certain themes have emerged in participants' responses, hence deducing their significance to them, which is then supplemented by specific examples from their responses, in order to present a more direct sense of the data related to the concepts, or to show the complexity of the issue.

5.1 Teacher's provision of support to students

In this section, results concerning teacher's provision of support to students are presented from three perspectives: students' view on teachers' provision of support to them (see Table 1); students' view on teachers' lack of provision of support to them (see Table 2); teacher's view on her provision of support to students (see Table 3).

Table 1. Teachers' provision of support to students: student reports

Student perception of teachers' provision of support to students	Indicator	SI 1	SI 2	SI 3	SI 4	SI 5	Total coverage
Emotional support	Academic support	0.31%	0.62%	0%	0%	0.13%	1.06%
	Social support	1.14%	0.14%	0%	0%	0.09%	1.37%
	Affection	1.25%	0.81%	0%	0%	0%	2.06%
	Attunement	0.51%	2.45%	0%	0%	0%	2.96%
Total coverage		3.21%	4.02%	0%	0%	0.22%	7.45%
Safety and responsiveness	Safety, positive feedback and nurturance	1.02%	1.99%	0%	1.55%	0.98%	5.54%

	Dependability	0.07%	0.34%	0%	0%	0%	0.41%
Total coverage		1.09%	2.33%	0%	1.55%	0.98%	5.95%
Help, advice and instruction	Help	1.35%	1.51%	0%	1.55%	1.63%	6.04%
	Dedication of resources	0.70%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.70%
	Teacher motivation	1.29%	1.57%	0.20%	0%	0%	3.06%
Total coverage		3.34%	3.08%	0.20%	1.55%	1.63%	9.80%
Expectations, opportunity and clear communication	Expectations for positive social behavior	0%	0.70%	0%	0%	0%	0.70%
	Expectations for academic engagement	2.15%	1.37%	0%	0%	1.39%	4.91%
	Fairness/ Democratic Communication	1.13%	0.61%	0.28%	0.56%	0.76%	3.34%
Total coverage		3.28%	2.68%	0.28%	0.56%	2.15%	8.95%
Structure	Clarity of expectations	0.25%	1.03%	0%	0%	0%	1.28%
	Consistency	0.17%	1.52%	0.28%	0.21%	0%	2.18%
	Predictability of responses	0.53%	0.53%	0%	0.54%	1.40%	3.00%
	Rich feedback regarding effectiveness	0.85%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.85%
	Rule-setting	0.46%	1.60%	0.39%	0.40%	0%	2.85%
Total coverage		2.26%	4.68%	0.67%	1.15%	1.40%	10.16%
Autonomy support	Internal perceived locus of causality	0%	0.29%	0%	0%	0%	0.29%
	Moderately autonomy-supportive	0%	0.54%	0%	0%	1.06%	1.60%

	Relevance	0.61%	0%	0%	0.49%	0%	1.1%
	Respect	0.54%	0.70%	0%	0%	0%	1.24%
	Volition	1.21%	0.51%	0%	0%	0%	1.72%
Total coverage		2.36%	2.04%	0%	0.49%	1.06%	5.95%

The above table is the coverage of student report on teacher's provision of support to students. From the above figure, it is clearly demonstrated that student interviewees most frequently mentioned that *structure* is provided by the teacher as a support (10.16%), which is followed by the provision of *help, advice and instruction* (9.80%) *and expectations, opportunities, and clear communication* (8.95%). *Provision of emotional support* is not perceived as strongly as the previous three dimensions of teacher support (7.45%), although it is not the case for student interviewee 1 and 2, whose speech display a rather high coverage of their perception of this support provided by the teacher (3.21%; 4.02%). *Autonomy support* scores the lowest in coverage as the least perceived teacher support (5.95%).

Another striking finding from this figure is that student interviewee 1 and 2 have much more positive perception of receiving the teacher support from multiple dimensions compared to the rest of the student interviewees, as the coverages in their speech for related indicators are generally higher, especially in terms of teacher's provision of *emotional support*. On the contrary, student interviewee 3's responses cover the least on all types of support provided by the teacher, with her perception of teacher' provision of *emotional support*, *safety and responsiveness*, and *autonomy support* is simply non-existent. This is followed by student interviewee 4 whose perception of these multiple types of support provided by teacher is the second weakest except for the case of *safety and responsiveness*. He also displays no perception of receiving emotional support from the subject teacher. Student interviewee 5 has a generally stronger perception of teachers' provision of support than student interviewee 3 and 4, except for the case of *safety and responsiveness*.

One example of student interviewees' perception of teacher's provision of support is taken from student interviewee 1's responses. She mentions multiple times the *emotional* closeness she feels with the teacher in the following speeches:

> Student interviewee 1: And the teacher is not just a teacher to us. She is like a friend to us…Sometimes we always chat like a friendly chat. Most teachers don't do that. Most teacher

would just give the paper and then explain and then if you need help you just go ask…She is like a friend to us.

She also implies her perception that she is especially liked by the teacher with a pinch of cautious and self-effacement as follows:

Researcher: Do you think your teacher like you as much as she like other students?

Student interviewee 1: Well, I'm not gonna say yes, because that would sound like I'm her favorite student. And it's pretty not nice that she thinks that way. So I'm sure she has other favorite student.

One example from student interviewee 3 who has the weakest perception of receiving support from the teacher is that she said the teacher "doesn't really change rules", when she was asked whether the teacher is consistent with the rule, which is counted as her perception of *consistency* on the part of the teacher.

Table 2. Lack of teachers' provision of support to students: student reports

Teachers' provision of support to students	Indicator	SI 1	SI 2	SI 3	SI 4	SI 5	Total coverage
Lack of emotional support	Lack of academic support	0%	0%	1.13%	0.26%	0.71%	2.10%
	Lack of social support	0%	0%	3.16%	2.90%	0.10%	6.16%
	Lack of affection	0%	0%	1.36%	0%	0.65%	2.01%
	Lack of attunement	0%	0%	1.26%	0.90%	0.49%	2.65%
Total coverage		0%	0%	6.91%	4.06%	1.95%	12.92%
	Lack of safety, positive	0%	0%	4.34%	0%	0%	4.34%

Lack of safety and responsiveness	feedback and nurturance						
	Lack of dependability	0%	0%	0%	0.48%	0%	0.48%
Total coverage		0%	0%	4.34%	0.48%	0%	4.82%
Lack of help, advice and instruction	Lack of help	0%	0%	1.09%	0%	0%	1.09%
	Lack of dedication of resources	0%	0%	0.44%	0.92%	0%	1.36%
	Lack of teacher motivation	0%	0%	0%	0.26%	0.78%	1.04%
Total coverage		0%	0%	1.53%	1.18%	0.78%	3.49%
Lack of expectations, opportunity and clear communication	Unreasonable expectation	0%	0%	0.33%	0%	0%	0.33%
	Lack of expectations for academic engagement	0%	0%	1.52%	0%	0%	1.52%
	Lack of fairness/ democratic communication	0%	1.85%	4.62%	1.51%	1.58%	9.56%
Total coverage		0%	1.85%	6.47%	1.51%	1.58%	11.41%
Lack of structure	Lack of clarity of expectations	0%	0%	1.00%	1.71%	1.71%	4.42%
	Inconsistency	0.30%	1.36%	0%	0%	1.94%	3.60%
	Lack of rich feedback regarding effectiveness	0%	0.69%	0%	0.70%	0.73%	2.12%
Total coverage		0.30%	2.05%	1.00%	2.41%	4.38%	10.14%
	External perceived	0%	0%	0.58%	1.87%	0.75%	3.20%

Lack of autonomy support	locus of causality						
	Coercive behavior	0.72%	1.23%	0%	1.21%	0.98%	4.14%
	Lack of relevance	0%	1.21%	1.78%	0.90%	0.81%	4.70%
	Lack of respect	0%	0%	0.33%	0.43%	1.32%	2.08%
	Lack of volition	0%	0%	1.10%	1.73%	1.10%	3.93%
	Lack of choice	0.46%	1.06%	0.54%	1.13%	0.65%	3.84%
	Moderately controlling	2.04%	1.78%	1.52%	1.68%	0.61%	7.63%
	Highly controlling	0%	0%	0.72%	0%	0.48%	1.20%
Total coverage		3.22%	5.28%	6.57%	8.95%	6.70%	30.72%

The second table is the coverage of student report on lack of support from the teacher. The most striking discovery from the above chart is that the highest percentage of student interviewees' responses reflect their perception of *lack of autonomy support* from the subject teacher (30.72%). This result corresponds well with the result in the first table which demonstrates that *autonomy support* is the least perceived type of teacher's support for student interviewees. *Lack of emotional support* is the second most strongly perceived problem with the teacher's provision of support to students, whose coverage in students' interview responses is the second highest (12.92%), although such remarks only come from student interviewee 3, 4, and 5. This is followed by student interviewees' perception of *lack of expectations, opportunity and clear communication*, and of *lack of structure*, the total coverage for which in student interviewees' responses is 11.41% and 10.14% separately. *Lack of safety and responsiveness* and *lack of help, advice and instruction* are not covered as mush in students' responses (4.82%; 3.49%).

In terms of individual student interviewees, student interviewee 1 and 2 did not display any negative perceptions when it comes to teacher's provision of *emotional support*, *safety and responsiveness*, *help, advice and instruction*. Student interviewee 1 also did not mention any of her perceiving a *lack of expectations, opportunity and clear communication* from the teacher, while student interviewee 2

mentioned briefly about it with 1.85% of her responses, more specifically in terms of *lack of fairness or democratic communication* by saying the following:

> Researcher: Does the teacher treat boys and girls differently?
> Student interviewee 2: A bit yeah, because we have a lot of boys in our class, especially from bigger grades. Also, there are three girls who are also not really interested. They sometimes are on their phones, like the boys. But the teacher doesn't really show her anger to them, because she knows they are going to feel pretty embarrassed, and maybe because they are not as rude, as disturbing, and as bad as the boys. And sometimes the teacher just expects the boys would not answer, so she just asks someone else. I feel like the teacher expects a bit more from the girls, because they are not as rude and as disturbing as the boys. So, she might have a bit more hope.

> Researcher: Does the teacher treat all kids equally? Or some better than others?
> Student interviewee 2: Again, the teacher may not have any hope, or she does not expect any good reaction from some people, so she doesn't really ask them that much question. And she just wants to make sure that they are participating. She asks them a question, and if they don't answer, she tells them they need to work harder.

Student interviewee 3's speech covers the highest percentage of her not perceiving sufficient support from the teacher, and she is followed by student interviewee 4 in feeling a lack of support. However, *a lack of autonomy support* by the teacher is commonly and relatively more strongly perceived by all participants.

One example of *a lack of autonomy support* is taken from the perceived teacher's demonstration of *coercive behavior* by student interviewee 5:

> Researcher: Do you feel you are free in this class?
> Student interviewee 5: No. Like when we talk to our friends or move to another seat, the teacher shouts at you… Sometimes when you are asking someone for help, the teacher will think that you are talking, and she straightly shouts, "Stop!

Another example of a lack of autonomy support indicated by *lack of relevance* is taken from student interviewee 3's response:

Researcher: Does your teacher tell you why you would do such and such activities or homework? Like talking about how necessary or beneficial it is to do it?

Student interviewee 3: No. She just tells us that we need to do it, or we will get a C.

Researcher: When the teacher tells you to do a learning activity or a homework, and if you are not so much interested in it or you find it difficult, how does your teacher motivate you so that you can try to fix the problem?

Student interviewee 4: No. She just tells me to do it.

Table 3. Teachers' provision of support to students: teacher reports

Teachers' provision of support to students	Indicator	TI
Emotional support	Affection	0.80%
	Attunement	4.20%
Total coverage		5.00%
Safety and responsiveness	Safety, positive feedback and nurturance	3.29%
Total coverage		3.29%
Help, advice and instruction	Help	2.31%
	Dedication of resources	0.78%
	Teacher motivation	1.47%
Total coverage		4.56%
Expectations, opportunity and clear communication	Expectations for academic engagement	1.16%
	Clear communication	0.64%
	Fairness	1.72%
Total coverage		3.52%

Structure	Clarity of expectations	0.24%
	Consistency	0.24%
	Predictability of responses	1.64%
	Adjustment of teaching strategy	2.25%
	Instrumental help and support	0.60%
	Rule-setting	0.05%
Total coverage		5.02%
Lack of autonomy support	Highly controlling motivational style	1.26%
	Lack of choice	1.98%
Total coverage		3.24%

The above table is the coverage of teacher report on teacher's provision of support to students. Her responses did not cover all indicators or sub-concepts of different dimensions and types of teacher support. For example, among the four indicators or aspect of *emotional support*, i.e. *academic support*, *social support*, *affection*, and *attunement*, her responses only reflect two, i.e. *affection* and *attunement*. Other unrepresented sub-concepts of different types of teacher support are *dependability* from the dimension *safety and responsiveness*; *expectations for positive social behavior* from the dimension *expectations, opportunity and clear communication*; *rich feedback regarding effectiveness* as part of provision of *structure*. However, her response covers *adjustment of teaching strategy* and *instrumental help and support* as two indicators of the provision of *structure*, which are not covered from student report. The highest coverages are seen in terms of provision of *structure* (5.02%), *emotional support* (5.00%), and *help, advice and instruction* (4.56%). Among the sub-concepts, the most covered one is *attunement* from the dimension *emotional support*. More specifically, she demonstrated a good amount of knowledge and understanding of her own students as reflected in the following example:

> Teacher interviewee: I talk with the family before. And I know the background of the family too. They just arrived here last year. They came from a different culture. In our culture, we care too much about the school, numbers, and graduate. How do I do in my work. How would my mother think about me, and the teacher? They came with this culture. She hasn't been affected by the atmosphere here… Because almost all the students, they know me. I know the mothers, they know me. I'm familiar for everyone, so it's easy to communicate with the students in the beginning.

Interestingly, the teacher's response did not cover any aspects of providing *autonomy support* to students. On the contrary, from her speech, it is learned that she might display *a highly controlling motivational style* and she does not give students alternative *choices* and options to choose from. This highly corresponds with student report where all of them expressed *a lack of autonomy support* on the part of the teacher.

5.2 Students' motivational outcomes

In this section, results with regard to students' motivational outcomes are displayed through three tables: Table 4 demonstrates students' view on their own classroom goal pursuit; Table 5 represents students' view on their intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; Table 6 shows teacher's perception of her students' motivational outcomes in terms of both classroom goal pursuit and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Table 4. Students' motivational outcomes in terms of classroom goal pursuit: student report

Students' motivational outcomes: classroom goal pursuit	Indicator	SI 1	SI 2	SI 3	SI 4	SI 5	Total coverage
Social goal pursuit	Prosocial goals: social	0%	0.80%	0%	0%	0.59%	1.39%
	Prosocial goals: academic	2.24%	1.47%	1.32%	0%	0%	5.03%

	Peer social responsibility goals	0.09%	0.68%	0.66%	0.79%	1.45%	3.67%
	Academic social responsibility goals	2.89%	0.70%	0.26%	0%	0.51%	4.36%
Total coverage		5.22%	3.65%	2.24%	0.79%	2.55%	14.45%
Lack of prosocial goal pursuit	Social	0%	0%	3.28%	1.74%	0%	5.02%
	Academic	0%	0%	0.71%	1.37%	0%	2.08%
Total coverage		0%	0%	3.99%	3.11%	0%	7.1%
Academic goal pursuit: mastery goals	Active engagement	0.20%	0.62%	0%	0.50%	0%	1.32%
	Attributions to effort-based strategies	0.32%	0.51%	0.94%	0%	0.98%	2.75%
	Feeling of belongingness	1.38%	1.65%	0%	0%	0.75%	3.78%
	Focus on effort and learning	0.16%	3.95%	0%	0%	0.71%	4.82%
	High intrinsic interest in activity	0.49%	0.79%	0%	0%	0%	1.28%
	Not cheating	0.71%	1.10%	0.04%	0.97%	1.64%	4.46%
	Satisfaction with learning	0.37%	0.25%	0%	0%	0.98%	1.60%
	Self-efficacy	1.26%	0.65%	0.21%	0.74%	0.59%	3.45%
	Use of effective learning and other self-regulatory strategies	1.35%	2.39%	0%	0%	0.98%	4.72%

	No disruptiveness	0.11%	0.10%	0.17%	0%	0%	0.38%
	Not passive about asking for help	0.09%	0.56%	0%	0.35%	0%	1.00%
	No procrastination	0.13%	0.58%	0.15%	0.87%	0%	1.73%
Total coverage		6.57%	13.15%	1.51%	3.43%	6.63%	31.29%
Academic goal pursuit: lack of mastery goals	Lack of active engagement	0%	0%	0.75%	0%	0%	0.75%
	Lack of attribution to effort-based strategies	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.92%	0.92%
	Lack of feeling of belongingness	0%	0%	0.17%	0.33%	0%	0.50%
	Lack of focus on effort and learning	0%	0%	0%	0.76%	0%	0.76%
	Lack of intrinsic interest in activity	0%	0%	0.35%	0.42%	0.37%	1.14%
	Dissatisfaction with learning	0%	0%	0.22%	0%	0%	0.22%
	Lack of self-efficacy	0%	0%	0.28%	0%	0%	0.28%
Total coverage		0%	0%	1.77%	1.51%	1.29%	4.57%
Academic goal pursuit:	Disruptiveness	0%	0%	0%	0.94%	0%	0.94%
	Negative affect about class	0%	0%	5%	1.04%	0.63%	6.67%

performance goals	Not asking for help when it's needed	0%	0%	1.94%	0%	0%	1.94%
	Procrastinating	0%	0%	0.83%	0%	1.42%	2.25%
Total coverage		0%	0%	7.77%	1.98%	2.05%	11.80%
Goal orientation beliefs	Mastery-oriented beliefs	0%	1.39%	0%	0%	0%	1.39%
	Evaluation-oriented beliefs	2.14%	0%	0.53%	0%	1.26%	3.93%
	Social-responsibility-oriented beliefs	0%	0.27%	0.69%	0%	0%	0.96%

Above is a demonstration of coverage from student report on their motivational outcomes in terms of classroom goal pursuit. The highest percentage of student responses, which is 31.29%, indicates their *pursuit of mastery goal* as their *academic goal pursuit*, which is followed by *the pursuit of social goals* whose coverage is 14.45%, the second highest. These are very positive motivational outcomes, although there is also the indication of *a lack of social goal pursuit* (7.1%) and *a lack of mastery goal pursuit* (4.57%), as well as *the pursuit of performance goals* (11.80%). *Evaluation-oriented beliefs* stand out as the most salient goal orientation beliefs.

Student interviewee 1 and 2 are the more motivated individuals in terms of classroom goal pursuit, because the coverage of their *pursuit of social goals* and *mastery goals* in their responses are much higher than the rest of the interviewees, except for the fact that student interviewee 5 talked a little bit more than student interviewee 1 on his *pursuit of mastery goals*. In the case of *social goal pursuit*, student interviewee 1 covers the most in her speech on this aspect (5.22%), followed by student interviewee 2 whose 3.65% of response is about her *pursuit of social goals*. In terms of *academic goal pursuit*, student interviewee 2's speech displays a striking 13.15% coverage with regard to her *pursuit of mastery goals*, while the same concept was visited by student interviewee 5 with 6.63% of his speech and student interviewee 1 with 6.57%. Student interviewee 1 and 2 also did not mention at all their potential *lack of mastery goal pursuit* and their possible *performance goal orientation*. On the contrary, student interviewee 3 shows the least motivation in terms of classroom goal pursuit, because her coverages of *lack of social goal pursuit* (3.99%), *lack of mastery goal orientation* (1.77%), and *performance goal orientation* (7.77%) are the highest. Similarly, student interviewee 4 also

displays much lower motivation in pursuing *social goals* and *mastery goals* (0.79%; 3.43%), while showing more of *a lack of mastery goal pursuit* (1.51%).

One example of the indication that the student pursues *academic goal* with *mastery goal orientation* is taken from the response of student interviewee 2. This example shows her *focus on effort and learning*, which is one of the indicators or sub-concepts for *mastery goal orientation*:

> Researcher: When you do well in something in this class, what do you believe help you to do well?
> Student interviewee 2: I think because I'm really interested in the class, and I really like going there. So that's what also makes me excited to do things we are supposed to do. And I work hard. The class is only once a week. I shouldn't really just waste that time.

Another indicator for mastery goal orientation is having *a sense of belongingness* to the class, whose example is taken from student interviewee 5 as follows:

> Researcher: Do you think you belong to this community?
> Student interviewee 5: Yeah, because it's an Islam class. It's my religion. I want to learn more, so I could know more about my religion. And there are other Muslim kids around.

As for performance goal orientation, student interviewee 3 said the following which shows her *negative affect about class*, which is one of the indicators for performance goal orientation:

> Researcher: Have you failed in any aspect in this class? What was your feeling? What will you do if you fail again?
> Student interviewee 3: So, I have two of failed relationships. One of them is the teacher of course. The second one is my enemy in my class. And she always sits next to me. And she speaks about me. She says I do nothing.
> Researcher: What was your feeling?
> Student interviewee 3: It was bad, bad, bad…

Table 5. Students' motivational outcomes in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: student report

Students' motivational outcomes: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation	Indicator	SI 1	SI 2	SI 3	SI 4	SI 5	Total coverage
Intrinsic motivation	Commitment to class work	0.15%	0.40%	0%	0%	0%	0.55%
	Interest	1.09%	2.58%	3.09%	0.42%	1.68%	8.86%
	Satisfaction with class	2.35%	2.07%	0%	0%	0.30%	4.72%
	Student engagement	1.05%	1.16%	0%	1.43%	0%	3.64%
Total coverage		4.64%	6.21%	3.09%	1.85%	1.98%	17.77%
Lack of intrinsic motivation	Lack of commitment to class work	0%	0%	2.26%	0.26%	1.13%	3.65%
	Lack of interest	0.25%	0%	5.41%	5.34%	2.47%	13.47%
	Dissatisfaction with class	1.25%	4.52%	2.59%	0.92%	1.26%	10.54%
	Lack of student engagement	0%	0%	0.52%	5.10%	3.02%	8.64%
Total coverage		1.50%	4.52%	10.78%	11.62%	7.88%	36.30%
Continuum of internalization (i.e. extrinsic motivation)	Identified regulation	0.34%	0.59%	0.77%	0%	0%	1.70%
	Introjected regulation	1.53%	0%	0.53%	0%	0.88%	2.94%
	External regulation	0.36%	0%	1.19%	3.22%	1.81%	6.58%
Total coverage		2.23%	0.59%	2.49%	3.22%	2.69%	11.22%

The above table shows the coverage from student report on their motivational outcomes in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. 36.30% of student interviewees' responses, which is the highest coverage, indicate their *lack of intrinsic motivation*. All five students have displayed such inclination to a greater or lesser extent. Among them, student interviewee 4 shows the most severe *lack of intrinsic motivation*, as 11.62% of his response reflects this aspect. His demonstration of low level of intrinsic motivation is followed by student interviewee 3, the coverage of whose response concerning this aspect is the second highest (10.78%), and then student interviewee 5 with a figure of 7.88%. Student interviewee 1 and 2's responses also have some indication of their possible lack of intrinsic motivation with the coverage of their responses on this point being 1.50% and 4.52%. Among the four indicated sub-concepts of *lack of intrinsic motivation*, *lack of interest* and *dissatisfaction with the class* stand out as the main problems.

The coverage of student responses that reflect their *intrinsic motivation* is 17.77%. Similarly, all five students have displayed a certain degree of *intrinsic motivation* to study for the class. Among them, student interviewee 2 responded with highest coverage that indicate she is intrinsically motivated for the class (6.21%). Student interviewee 1 follows her with her response's coverage of this point being 4.64%. On the contrary, student interviewee 3, 4 and 5 appear to display less intrinsic motivation.

11.22% of student interviewee's responses concern their *extrinsic motivation* manifested as *identified regulation* (1.70%), *introjected regulation* (2.94%), and *external regulation* (6.58%). Among the participants, student interviewee 4 displays the strongest inclination towards *extrinsic motivation* with an exclusively *external regulation* (3.22%), while student interviewee 2 shows the opposite with her exclusive use of *identified regulation* (0.59%).

One example of students' *intrinsic motivation* to participate in the IE class, shown as *interest*, is taken from the response of student interviewee 2:

> Researcher: Have you discovered some new interests in this class?
> Student interviewee 2: Maybe a little bit, because we've already learned some stuff. And now we are learning more, which are sometimes like things I haven't learned. I sometimes get excited, because they are pretty interesting…I'm really interested in the class, and I really like going there.

The following response from student interviewee 2, on the other hand, show her *dissatisfaction with class*, as one of the indications for *a lack of intrinsic motivation*:

Researcher: How much are you interested in the learning activities and the topics in this class?
Student interviewee 2: I'm pretty interested in the topics, but maybe not that much in the activities. As I said before, there are only writing. But I like drawing, coloring, writing crosswords and stuff. I think this will make it more fun for people, because the older kids get really bored at those stuff, and then they just start chatting. And then the teacher just stays busy talking to them, telling them they shouldn't do that… I sometimes get disturbed by others, which sometimes makes me a bit sad, because I'm so interested in this class, but others are just like they come only because they have to. They don't usually do their paper, or they don't participate.

Student interviewee 4's response that shows his *external regulation*, as the least degree of *internalization*, is as follows:

Researcher: Why are you attending this class?
Student interviewee 4: Because I have to.
Researcher: If you have a choice, would you attend it?
Student interviewee 4: No.
Researcher: Why do you have to attend it?
Student interviewee 4: Because it's part of my timetable.
Researcher: If you don't attend it, what would happen?
Student interviewee: I would get in trouble.

Table 6. Students' motivational outcomes: teacher report

Teacher report on students' motivational outcomes	Indicator	SI 1	SI 2	SI 3	SI 4	SI 5	Students in general	Total coverage
Social goal pursuit	Prosocial goals: social	0.10%	0.22%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.32%
	Prosocial goals: academic	0.09%	0.45%	0%	0%	0.05%	0%	0.59%

	Academic social responsibility goals	0.38%	0.19%	0.45%	0.06%	0%	0%	1.08%
Total coverage		0.57%	0.86%	0.45%	0.06%	0.05%	0%	1.99%
Lack of prosocial goal pursuit	Social	0%	0%	0%	0.47%	0%	0%	0.47%
	Academic	0%	0%	0.06%	0.10%	0%	0%	0.16%
Total coverage		0%	0%	0.06%	0.57%	0%	0%	0.63%
Academic goal pursuit: mastery goals	Active engagement	1.25%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.25%
	Feeling of belongingness	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00%	2.00%
	Focus on effort and learning	0%	0.52%	0.52%	0%	0%	0%	1.04%
	Self-efficacy	0.27%	0.31%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.58%
	Use of effective learning and other self-regulatory strategies	0.78%	0.07%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.85%
Total coverage		2.30%	0.90%	0%	0%	0%	2.00%	5.72%
Academic goal pursuit: lack of mastery goals	Lack of active engagement	0%	0%	0%	0.56%	0%	0%	0.56%
	Lack of intrinsic interest in activity	0%	0%	0%	0.44%	0.26%	0%	0.70%

	Lack of self-regulation	0%	0%	0.35%	0%	0%	0%	0.35%
Total coverage		0%	0%	0.35%	1.00%	0.26%	0%	1.61%
Academic goal pursuit: performance goals	Disruptiveness	0%	0%	0%	1.82%	0%	0%	1.82%
	Not asking for help when it's needed	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.26%	0%	0.26%
Total coverage		0%	0%	0%	1.82%	0.26%	0%	2.08%
Intrinsic motivation	Commitment to class work	0%	0.09%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.09%
	Interest	0.06%	0.11%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.17%
	Student engagement	1.92%	2.33%	1.98%	1.14%	3.00%	0%	10.37%
Total coverage		1.98%	2.53%	1.98%	1.14%	3.00%	0%	10.63%
Lack of intrinsic motivation	Lack of commitment to classwork	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.62%	0.62%
	Lack of interest	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.65%	0.65%
	Lack of student engagement	0%	0%	0%	0.49%	1.15%	0%	1.64%
Total coverage		0%	0%	0%	0.49%	1.15%	0%	2.91%
Extrinsic motivation		0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.49%	2.49%

The above chart demonstrates the coverage from teacher report on students' motivational outcomes both in terms of classroom goal pursuit and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The highest percentage of coverage is seen in teacher's responses concerning students' display of *intrinsic motivation* (10.63%). In her speech, she covers most about intrinsic motivation of student interviewee 5 (3.00%),

although this figure is solely concerned with only one aspect of *intrinsic motivation*, i.e. *student engagement*. For other students, this sub-concept of *intrinsic motivation* is also what the teacher talked about most. When it comes to *interest*, another indication of having *intrinsic motivation*, the teacher only confirmed that student interviewee 1 and 2 had displayed such quality. What she said about students' *mastery goal orientation* as their *pursuit of academic goals* covers the second highest percentage of her response (5.72%). But this part of the response is only about student interviewee 1 and 2 again, apart from her remarks on all students in general including those who are not participants of this study. 1.99% of her speech is about student interviewees' *social goal pursuit* in which student interviewee 2 and 1 were mentioned most.

She also talked about *the lack of intrinsic motivation* (2.91%), *performance goal orientation* (2.08%), *the lack of mastery goal orientation* (1.61%), and *the lack of prosocial goal pursuit* (0.63%). Interestingly, all these remarks of hers only focus on student interviewee 3, 4, or 5.

She also commented on her students in general, including those who are not participants of this study. She talked about their *feeling of belongingness* in her class (2.00%), *lack of commitment to classwork* (0.62%), *lack of interest* (0.65%), and *extrinsic motivation* (2.49%).

Here is one example of her mentioning the *verbal participation*, one of the indicators of *student engagement* which is in itself a sub-concept of *intrinsic motivation*, of the participants:

> Researcher: How much do they talk in class? Relevant talks, not irrelevant. Like talking with you, asking questions, answering questions, discussions, etc.?
> Teacher interviewee: All the time. Student interviewee 2 and student interviewee 1 do this all the time.

The following is an example of her talking about the *disruptiveness* of student interviewee 4, which indicates his *lack of engagement*, hence *lack of intrinsic motivation*:

> Teacher interviewee: Student interviewee 4, um… This group needs to be separated, because the boys sit together. And they start chatting. This is the problem all the time…Student interviewee 4, you can't get anything from him. He is playing, laughing, talking, more than focusing in something.

The next example is how she talked about the display of extrinsic motivation of her students in general:

Researcher: How do you know whether they are interested or not?

Teacher interviewee: There are 10 scores from the Islam course. They need them. They want to be sure they will get a 10. So that's why they would be motivated to work hard, even the school made them… Some of them start lazy, you know, and they don't want to do anything. And after that, they start to work harder, because they know they need the numbers. All of them, they know, especially the second group, they are in middle school upstairs. They feel OK…Islam is just a course we don't need that much, and it's not important for us. They are all in this age. They feel the same about religion. They can't care less.

5.3 Other findings

Unexpected issues which are not within the scope of the theories used in this study also emerge. This shows the complexity of the phenomenon, and it gives insights to alternative factors that can influence teacher's provision and students' perception of teacher support and students' motivational outcomes. This is also why the I opted for qualitative case study through conducting semi-structure interviews. Table 7 displays these other findings.

Table 7. Other findings: student and teacher report.

Other findings based on student and teacher report	SI 1	SI 2	SI 3	SI 4	SI 5	TI	Total coverage
Class activities	1.33%	1.28%	0%	0.41%	0%	0.65%	3.67%
Difference from other religion classes	1.38%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.38%
Problematic class arrangement	1.50%	3.22%	0%	0%	0%	2.79%	7.51%
Lack-of-challenge easy content	0.51%	0.87%	2.31%	3.18%	2.39%	0%	9.26%

Limited depth of communication with teacher	1.97%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.97%
Lack of knowledge about student	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.63%	0.63%
Lack of knowledge about subject teacher	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.61%	0%	0.61%
Lack of confidence in own identity	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.26%	2.26%
Challenges with study	0.55%	0.56%	0.54%	0%	1.87%	1.60%	5.12%
Teacher's stress	0.59%	1.44%	0%	0%	0%	0.36%	2.39%
Subjectivity of the interviewee	0%	0%	1.25%	0%	0%	0%	1.25%

The issue that stands out among others is *lack-of-challenge easy content*. Responses that reflect this problem only came from student interviewees, among whom student interviewee 4 mentioned it most. Here is an example from his response:

> Researcher: How often do you really pay attention in IE class?
> Student interviewee 4: Not so often. Most of the time I already know the content the teacher is teaching, so I just talk to my friends.
> Researcher: How do you learn? Do you think they play a role in your performance?
> Student interviewee 4: I just read the paper. The subject is so simple that I don't need a strategy for it.

Even for more motivated students like student interviewee 1 and student interviewee 2, the content in the class is not challenging enough:

Researcher: Is there anything that make you excited in this class?
Student interviewee 1: Not really, because most of the things that we are learning right now I have learned it when I was 7 or 8 years old. So, some of the things we learn now, I already knew it.

Researcher: Have you encounter any challenges in this class? What was your feeling?
Student interviewee 2: Maybe not that much, because in my old school, we used to have two lessons a week. So we learned more things faster. So most of the things I already know, but I'm just learning extra details about them…I hope we have more things to do, because like my friend and I, we usually finish early, and then we have nothing to do.

Another issue that is repeatedly talked about by student interviewee 1, student interviewee 2 and the teacher is the *problematic class arrangement*. They are not very satisfied about how the school only opens one IE course for different age groups, which compromises their learning and teaching experiences.

About this matter, student interviewee 1 said the following:

Student interviewee 1: Sometimes I feel like our Islam class is not taken seriously by the school. One is because other religion classes are class group, like 7A and 7B, so they have different time. But Islam class is very different, because it's for all grades and all ages come together. We all have different levels. But other class, they all have the same level of thinking. So, it's pretty unfair for our Islam class…We are all just 7th, 8th, 9th and 10th grade now. But in the class when I was in 6th grade, we had grade 1 to 6. A huge age range. That's why we had the problem like some of them didn't understand what to do, some of them understood.

One example from student interviewee 2 about this problem is as follows, which reflects part of the teacher's energy is spent on maintaining the class order due to the big age range of students:

Student interviewee 2: I'm pretty interested in the topics, but maybe not that much in the activities. As I said before, there are only writing. But I like drawing, coloring, writing crosswords and stuff. I think this will make it more fun for people, because the older kids get really bored at those stuff, and then they just start chatting. And then the teacher just stays busy talking to them, telling them they shouldn't do that. So, I think if there are more activities

that people are interested in, or if we have so many different papers from which we can choose from, so then people can get a bit more interested. It will also help the smaller kids to learn, because then the teacher wouldn't need to go and tell the older kids to do this stuff, and then the smaller kids can get help.

The teacher also talked about this problem and how it makes the teaching challenging for her:

Teacher interviewee: You know the problem of Islam course, they put all ages in one group. Not like the school, I have the 1st grade, so we have the same subjects, the same way for teaching. I have different classes in an hour…The problem is, it's only one hour a week. So, you can't get everything like the normal classroom which are daily. It's easier when you have daily lessons, so we evaluate in different way. But they come only 1 hour a week. So, the situation here is a little bit different. There is no time. I have like for first grade, second grade, third grade, fourth, sixth, they are on the same group in one hour. And at the same time, I have students from the Finnish school too. So, when I'm teaching, I'm teaching in Finnish and English. I have made in English, after that translate it in Finnish, because I have all these groups in the same hour. It's like a challenge for me to teach the same topic. When you choose a topic, the Finnish students, they have books. But in English, they don't. I choose the topic, because in the morning the English group is bigger than Finnish group, so I choose the topic in English first, then I give them translations in Finnish. I'm trying to translate it into Finnish for them.

6 Discussion

Aim of the study is to explore how teacher-student relationships in terms of teacher's provision of support to students affect students' motivation in the context of Islamic Education courses in Finnish public schools. In order to fulfil this aim, the study uses social support perspectives and self-determination theory as its theoretical framework. Due to the complexity of the phenomenon and the limited available resources, a case study was conducted and qualitative data from semi-structured interviews from 5 students and 1 teacher were collected. By combining approaches from grounded theory and thematic analysis, the data was analyzed and yield insights into the kind of support available to students from teacher in the targeted context; how it fosters students' classroom goal pursuit; how it affects students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In this chapter, these findings and insights are presented and discussed.

6.1 RQ1) What kind of support provided by teacher exist in the context of Finnish IE classrooms?

According to social support perspective, or more specifically, the Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support, a proper support from teacher that is conducive to boosting students' motivation should be multi-dimensional. Teachers provision of support should include expectations, opportunities and clear communications; help, advice and instruction; safety and responsiveness; emotional support (Wentzel, 2004). Self-Determination Theory asserts that interpersonal involvement, provision of structure, and autonomy support are crucial (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2016). Interpersonal involvement encompasses the last three dimensions of social support from the Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support, while provision of structure partially overlaps with the first two dimensions. This study found that, in this particular case of an IE classroom in a public international school, all these types of support except for autonomy support are well provided by the teacher.

Structure (5.02% in coverage) and provision of help, advice and instruction (4.56% in coverage) stand out in teacher's responses to topics about her provision of support to students. Similarly, students gave the most frequent and positive responses with regard to the provision of structure (10.16% in coverage), followed by the provision of help, advice and instruction (9.80% in coverage) and expectations, opportunities and clear communication (8.95% in coverage). As it is stated before, provision of structure as one type of support from the perspective of Self-Determination Theory overlaps with help, advice, and instruction; expectations, opportunities and clear communications as

two dimensions of support from the social support perspective. Therefore, the most strongly perceived teacher support provided to the students is in fact the provision of structure. According to Ryan and Deci (2016), consistency in setting and upholding rules and giving rich feedback are two other aspects of providing structure. In the targeted case for this study, teacher's rule-setting and her consistency in implementing them are much more positively perceived by the students (5.03% in coverage) than the rich feedback she was supposed to provide to students (0.85% in coverage). In fact, when it comes to rich feedback regarding effectiveness, three out of five student participants said the feedback they had received were quite short and simple, such as "Excellent!"; "Exactly!"; "That's right!"; or they were simply asked to "Do it again!" if there is something wrong. Only student interviewee 1 talked about her positive experiences of receiving such feedback on her work:

> Researcher: Do you get feedback for your learning and performances? What kind of feedback? Rich or not?
> Student interviewee 1: Yes, she gives feedback. Like the time when we gave presentation. We gave the presentation in front of the Christianity class on what is Islam. My friend X and I were the highest level in our Islam class. That's why we were chosen to give this presentation. Then Dalia told us maybe we can give in front of the class. We were like sure. But then if we did something unsatisfactory, she would tell us to improve that, improve this. And she also told us the good things about the presentation.

This could be attributed to the fact that she did something impressive and special in the eyes of the teacher compared to the rest of the class, which is to participate in an inter-faith activity and give the same presentation in her own class as well. The basis for this judgement is that when the teacher talked about student interviewee 1, she also mentioned that she did "projects" and "made posters about Islam" with a positive tone about her interest level and her background knowledge at the same time.

Emotional support sees a lesser degree of coverage both in teacher and student reports (5.00% and 7.45% in coverage). Although this concept still enjoys a quite strong indication in student reports, but such positive responses concerning the provision of emotional support almost only came from student interviewee 1 and 2. Rest of the participants talked heavily about the opposite (12.92% in coverage). This might be explained by some indications from teacher report. Only two sub-concepts, affection and attunement, were covered in her responses, and most of her speech on this matter is concerned with attunement (4.02% in coverage), while only 0.80% reflects her affection towards students. This indicates that she might know her students quite well, but it does not necessarily lead to a stronger or

more profound interpersonal involvement or closeness. Another factor that possibly curtail the provision and perception of emotional support could be the problematic class arrangement, one of the unexpected findings of this study. The school lumps all grades from PYP in the same once-a-week class where each session only lasts for 45 minutes. With the big age range and drastically different needs of students to meet, it could be difficult for the teacher to fully establish close emotional relationships with all of her students. Besides, results from previous studies that only use teacher report on their provision of emotional support and closeness with students demonstrate a close correspondence to results obtained only through student reports (Chang, Liu, Wen, Fung, Wang, & Xu, 2004; Wentzel, 1994; Wentzel & Asher, 1995), and this is also well reflected in current study.

Autonomy support is the type of support that is clearly lacking, indicated by both student and teacher report. It scores the lowest in students' responses about receiving such support (5.95% in coverage), and the highest in their complaints about not receiving enough of it (30.72% in coverage). Even student interviewee 1 and 2, the two student participants who expressed a much more positive perception of support they received from the teacher compared to the rest of the student participants, were not able to be as positive when it comes to perceived autonomy support. Teacher's response also indicates she has a highly controlling motivational style and does not provide students with options and choices.

Obviously, it would be meaningful to probe the factors that affect the provision and perception of teacher support to students, as well as the degree to which the I can objectively measure and draw inferences from them. First, Wentzel (2016) reasonably made the assumption that the competence of students also has an impact on the nature and quality of the interactions between teacher and students, as opposed to the dominant view that teacher-student relationships have causal influence. She argues that the students whose functioning in one domain is highly competent can also function very well in other domains. For example, whether from student responses or from teacher report, student interviewee 1 and 2 appear to be more motivated individuals who are also prosocial, socially responsible, intrinsically motivated, self-regulated and academically and socially competent. On the other hand, student interviewee 3, 4 and 5 seem to be less competent in all or some of these aspects, and they appear to be less motivated. Overall, student interviewee 1 and 2 have much more positive perception of teacher support provided to them compared to student interviewee 3, 4 and 5. For example, student interviewee 3 mentioned many times that she has an "enemy" in her class and that she hates her. Her responses also reflect that she does not really socialize with other peers from the same IE class except with her sister. And she is the one who says the following about her IE teacher, which shows her obvious subjectivity in viewing her relationship with the teacher:

Researcher: Do you know what your teacher expects of you in class? How do you know?
Student interviewee 3: I don't know. Why are you asking me? I think she would be calmer, if I wasn't there. I think she would be happy if I wasn't there.
Researcher: How do you know?
Student interviewee 3: I don't know. I just guessed.
Researcher: Does the teacher treat all kids equally? Or some better than others?
Student interviewee 3: I'm the only one that is mistreated.

Therefore, it can be reasonably assumed that the relatively higher competence of student interviewee 1 and 2 both socially and academically may have a more positive influence on their interaction with the teacher, as well as their perception of teacher support, compared to the other three student participants.

Second, Lempers and Clark-Lempers (1992) found that when rating the significance of their relationships with their parents, siblings, teachers, and friends, school-aged children tend to rank their teacher, rather than their parents, as the most important source for instrumental help and informational support. On the contrary, when it comes to interpersonal dimensions like intimacy, companionship, nurturance, and admiration, teachers repeatedly receive the lowest score compared to parents and peers (Furman & Buhrmester, 1985; Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1992; Reid, Landesman, Treder, & Jaccard, 1989). This may explain student participants' relatively more positive perception of teacher's provision of structure which includes expectations, opportunities, clear and democratic communication, instrumental help, advice, instruction and consistency, compared to their perception of interpersonal involvement which includes emotional support, safety and responsiveness. For example, one unexpected finding is that student interviewee 1 is only open to a limited depth of communication with her IE teacher. One of her responses that reflect this issue is as follows:

Researcher: If you had any religious struggle internally, emotionally, would you talk to your teacher?
Student interviewee 1: Yeah, I would talk to her if I'm comfortable, if it's something she can answer. But if she can't, I would ask my dad.

Here, she expressed her inclination of turning to a parent rather than her teacher for a more profound and personal problem for support. One limitation of this study is that it does not consider the parent-child relationships and student relationships with their peers, which could lead to an over-

simplification of a complex phenomenon. So, it might lead to more meaningful insights if future research also takes into account the impact of these other relationships.

Third, the possibility of the teacher and the students creating biased reports cannot be overlooked. Previous studies found that teachers tend to rate closeness and warmth differently for boys and girls (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Silver, Measelle, Armstrong, & Essex, 2005). Also, different characteristics of student participants often result in differing findings (Wentzel, 2016). For example, students' perception of teacher support tends to be more positive and stronger for girls than for boys (Blankemeyer, Flannery, & Vazsonyi, 2002; Wentzel, 2002). In the case of this study, teacher talked more about her positive interactions with student interviewee 1 and 2, who are girls, than her interactions with interviewee 4 and 5, who are boys. Similarly, Student interviewee 1 and 2 had much more positive appraisal of their relationships with the teacher, or in other words, of the perceived teacher support. Other student and teacher characteristics that have moderating influences on teacher-student relationships and their impact are age, race, etc (Wentzel, 2016). Considering the heterogeneity of most IE classes in Finnish public schools, future examinations into these characteristics might yield more meaningful results.

Fourth, the severe lack of provision and perception of autonomy support is a striking finding of this study. However, it is not within the scope of this study to examine the reason behind this lacking. Rissanen (2014) states the fact that the qualifications of minority religious teachers are not fully ensured in Finland at the moment due to immigrants' language barriers, lack of basic education of the applicants, and the absence of chairs for Islamic Studies in Finnish higher educational institutions. She also notes that this can lead to unintentional but ineffective pedagogical choices on the part of the teacher, which may undermine the quality of their provision of support to their students (2014). Therefore, this is also one issue that worth attention in future research.

6.2 RQ2) To what extent does the available teacher support foster students' classroom goal pursuit?

According to Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support, when students perceive teacher support of multiple dimensions, i.e. expectation, opportunities, and clear communication; help, advice, and instruction; safety and responsiveness; emotional support, they pursue social and academic goals more actively (Wentzel, 2004). The pursuit of social goals is more specifically demonstrated as pursuing prosocial goals (i.e. help, share, and cooperate), and pursuing socially responsible goals (i.e. follow rules; keep commitments). The pursuit of academic goals manifest itself as mastery goal

pursuit (i.e. learn new things; master content) or performance goal pursuit (i.e. receive positive evaluations of performance and ability) (Wentzel, 2004).

In the case of this study, student participants' responses show that mastery goal pursuit is most strongly indicated (31.29% in coverage), and the indication for the pursuit of performance goals is also strong (11.80% in coverage). The second highest coverage in student report regarding classroom goal pursuit is seen with regard to the pursuit of social goals (14.45%). With regard to individual student participants, student interviewee 2, 5, and 1 demonstrate the more marked pursuit of mastery goals, with student interviewee 2 standing out with a strikingly high percentage of her speech focusing on her mastery goal pursuit (13.15%). Student interviewee 3, 5 and 4 are the main source of speech that display performance goal pursuit, with the percentage of interviewee 3's responses on this aspect being the distinctively highest (7.77%). Student interviewee 1 and 2 are the two students who were more active in pursuing social goals (5.22% and 3.65% in coverage). With regard to the demonstration of a weaker classroom goal pursuit, student interviewee 3, 4, and 5 display a lack of mastery goal pursuit, and student interviewee 3 and 4 a lack of prosocial goal pursuit. In terms of goal orientation beliefs, only student interviewee 2 shows mastery-oriented beliefs, while evaluation-oriented beliefs are represented by student interviewee 1, 3, and 5; social-responsibility-oriented beliefs are demonstrated by student interviewee 2 and 3. Overall, student report shows that student interviewee 1 and 2 are more motivated than student interviewee 3, 4 and 5, when viewed from their classroom goal pursuit.

Similarly, in teacher report, the teacher's responses concerning students' mastery goal pursuit cover the second highest percentage of her speech (5.72%). Also, her response only focuses on student interviewee 1 and 2 in terms of a display of mastery goal pursuit. 1.99% of her speech is about students' social goal pursuit, and again student interviewee 1 and 2 gave her the strongest impression of pursuing this goal. On the contrary, her responses about a lack of mastery goal pursuit, a lack of prosocial goal pursuit, and performance goal pursuit are only concerned with student interviewee 3, 4 and 5. In a word, in her view, student interviewee 1 and 2 are more active in pursuing classroom goals when compared to student interviewee 3, 4 and 5. This finding from teacher report highly corresponds to the results from student report.

As it is discussed in the previous section on research question 1, student interviewee 1 and 2 have much more positive perception of teacher support provided to them compared to student interviewee 3, 4 and 5. Correspondingly, teacher report also shows her more positive interactions with student interviewee 1 and 2 than her interactions with interviewee 4 and 5. In case of student interviewee 3,

the teacher's remark is nothing more than saying that she is "small", "quiet" and "needs help from her sister". These are important to bear in mind before we start to examine their possible relation with these students' classroom goal pursuit, apart from other major findings display in the discussion section on research question 1.

Previous studies found that there is a correlation between students' perceived emotional support from teachers and their mastery and performance goal orientations, academic values, interest, engagement, and self-efficacy (Danielsen, Breivik, & Wold, 2011; Ibanez, et, al., 2004; Murdock & Miller, 2003; Perry, et, al., 2010; Reyes, et, al., 2012; Sakiz, et, al., 2012; Sanchez, et, al., 2005; Valeski & Stipek, 2001; Wang & Eccles, 2013; Wentzel, 1997, 1998, 2003; Wentzel, et, al., 2010). Students' perceptions of teacher emotional support are also found to be related to their prosocial goal pursuit and socially responsible goal pursuit (Wentzel, 1994, 1997, 1998, 2003). Teacher involvement proves to play a positive role in primary school students' emotional functioning and academic engagement, such as effort, over time (Arbeau, et, al., 2010; Furrer & Skinner, 2003). In current study, only student interviewee 1 and 2 had positive views about their teacher's provision of emotional support, while the other three students held very negative ones on this aspect. Not surprisingly, student interviewee 1 and 2 are clearly stronger than rest of the students in their mastery goal orientation, academic values, interest, engagement and self-efficacy, which are all indicators of academic goal pursuit, as well as in their social goal pursuit. Such findings further strengthened the empirical evidences of previously mentioned studies.

Students tend to internalize social and academic goals valued by teachers when they receive a clear and consistent communication about their teacher's values and expectations with regard to such goals (Gettinger & Kohler, 2006; Wentzel, 2002). Also, teachers' conveyance to their students of their expectations about ability and performance can result in a more positive self-efficacy and academic goal pursuit in their students (Weinstein, 2002). In current study, student interviewee 1 and 2 show stronger perceptions of teacher support from this dimension, and they are also the ones who pursue social and academic goals valued by the teacher more actively, as well as having more positive self-efficacy beliefs. In terms of self-efficacy, a slightly higher coverage rate is seen in student interviewee 4's response (0.74%) than in student interviewee 2's response (0.65%). This is due to the fact that the total amount of student interviewee 4's speech is much less than that of student interviewee 2's speech in the interviews. It does not necessarily mean student interviewee 4 has more positive self-efficacy beliefs than student interviewee 2. The following examples from data may lead to a clearer understanding on this matter:

Researcher: How is your performance in this class?

Student interviewee 2: I think I do a pretty good job…I know I'm always active, and I know so many things.

Researcher: Is your teacher willing to dedicate her help to you by spending time and energy on you?

Student interviewee 2: Maybe not that much, because I'm pretty active. And she thinks that I find things easily, which is actually true. And she has to go and help others who are chitchatting.

Researcher: How is your performance in this class?

Student interviewee 4: Still OK. Like my grades are good. And if I answer a question, I usually get it right.

Researcher: Do you think you are good at this subject?

Student interviewee 4: Yeah.

It can be clearly seen that student interviewee 2 is actually more expressive than student interviewee 4 on this matter, but they equally show self-efficacy beliefs.

Students tend to see their teachers as the most important source of support for instrumental help and information provision (Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1992), and the provision of instrumental help as a dimension of teacher support is valued by students of all ages (Wentzel, 2016). Teachers' pedagogical functioning is central in the classroom in that they are the ones who transmit knowledge and train students in academic subject areas (Wentzel, 2004). When providing instruction, teachers also use classroom management practices to induce appropriate behaviors from students (Doyle, 1986). They do this also by structuring learning environments so that some goals are made more salient than others to students (Ames & Ames, 1984; Cohen, 1986; Solomon, et al., 1992). As for current study, both teacher and student participants highlight the provision and perception of structure, help, advice and instruction. This shows how important this dimension of teacher support is for students. One example of teacher using classroom management practices to induce appropriate behaviors from students is that student interviewee 1 and 2 both mentioned teacher's reinforcement of Islamic etiquettes in the class, such as Islamic way of greeting and being polite to others, as well as how students all do it because they "got a bit used to". Again, more positive appraisals of receiving this dimension of teacher support come from student interviewee 1 and 2. Although student interviewee 3, 4 and 5 have some positive things to say about teacher's provision of structure, help, advice and instruction, they also have nearly equal amount of or even more negative remarks about

it. This might again show a correlation between teacher's provision and students' perception of instrumental help and students' classroom goal pursuit, because student interviewee 1 and 2 are more motivated in terms of pursuing classroom goals than rest of the student participants.

However, another unexpected finding cannot be discounted: all student participants touched upon from time to time the lack-of-challenge easy contents of the lessons. It is obvious that the contents of the lessons are not as challenging or exciting as they wish. This can undermine the teacher's effort to provide instrumental help, since students might not really need it. Therefore, it is hard to say definitively that, in our targeted case, this dimension of teacher support, both the provision of it and the perception of it, have a big influence on students' classroom goal pursuit. Future research can examine whether it is the case, and if it is, the extent to which the lack of challenge undermine the role of teacher's provision of help, advice and instruction.

In terms of provision and perception of safety and responsiveness, previous studies found that this dimension of support often result in a stronger sense of belonging in the learning community, more positive socially competent behaviors, and higher academic gains (Schaps, et, al., 1997; Watson, et al., 1989). In current study, both teacher and student participants except for student interviewee 3 acknowledged the provision and perception of safety and responsiveness. As one of its motivational outcomes, a sense of belongingness, one of the indicators of mastery goal pursuit, is extensively talked about in teacher's response; student interviewee 1, 2 and 5 also demonstrate a feeling of belongingness to the community with student interviewee 1 even repeatedly saying that the teacher is like a "friend" and the class a "family". As for more positive socially competent behaviors and higher academic gains, student interviewee 1 and 2 are again stronger representatives. This could be attributed to their perception of safety and responsiveness. But, as it is discussed before, this might also due to the fact that they function with competence in one domain, thus they tend to function better in other domains as well, as argued by Wentzel (2016). Also, the correlation of provision and perception of safety and responsiveness with a sense of belongingness, social and academic goal pursuit might have the best manifestation in the counter-example of student interviewee 3.

Due to the scope of the current study, other factors such as parental support and support from peers are not taken into consideration. But the possible motivational outcomes of such relationships cannot be discounted. Thus, future research can examine these relationships of Muslim students in Finnish public schools along with their teacher-student relationships to get a more wholesome picture.

6.3 RQ3) To what extent does the available teacher support influence students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation?

According to self-determination theory, interpersonal involvement between teachers and students, provision of structure, and autonomy support are essential in satisfying students' basic psychological needs for relatedness, competence and autonomy; when these psychological needs are satisfied, students tend to be either more intrinsically motivated, or display a higher degree of integration, i.e. to internalize social practices and rules which are not intrinsically interesting to them (Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2016; Wentzel, 2016). As it is discussed in the previous section on research question 1, interpersonal involvement includes emotional support; safety and responsiveness; help, advice and instruction. These are three dimensions of teacher support based on the Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support. The provision of structure means providing clear expectations, opportunities and clear communications; help, advice and instruction; consistency; rich feedback. Among them, the first two are again two dimensions of teacher support according to the Models of Multiple Dimensions of Social Support. The role of these dimensions of teacher support on students' classroom goal pursuit is already discussed. In this section, their roles, combined with the role of autonomy support, are viewed from the perspective of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, i.e. continuum of internalization.

Previous studies show that intrinsically motivated individuals display enjoyment, fun, effort and interest (Ryan & Deci, 2016); satisfaction with school (Epstein & McPartland, 1978); commitment to classwork (Epstein & McPartland, 1978); interest in school and class (Ford & Tisak, 1982; Wentzel, 1998); student engagement (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). The results of current study show that, according to student reports, a lack of intrinsic motivation is more strongly represented than being intrinsically motivated. Student interviewee 4 is the one who lack intrinsic motivation most (11.62% in coverage), followed by student interviewee 3 (10.78% in coverage). Even the more motivated student interviewee 1 and 2 showed a certain degree of lacking intrinsic motivation (4.52% and 1.50% in coverage). Their lack of intrinsic motivation is mainly indicated by their lack of interest (13.47% in coverage), dissatisfaction with class (10.54% in coverage), and a lack of student engagement (8.64% in coverage). This phenomenal level of de-motivation might be due to the lack of provision and perception of autonomy support, as well as students' perception that their teacher being moderately controlling in style (7.63% in coverage), i.e. the teacher encourages certain behaviors or attitudes by appealing to students' internalized sense of obligation or to what others think is right. Another factor could be the lack of rich feedback regarding effectiveness (0.85% in coverage from student report). Although the teacher gives positive feedbacks, they are often merely short phrases, such as

"Excellent!". It is not rich enough to touch the students. Deci and Ryan (1985) proposed that autonomy and competence are two basic psychological needs of human beings, the satisfaction or thwarting of which can result in more or less intrinsically motivated individuals. They (1985) further suggested that even the provision of enjoyable rewards tend to have students perceive the locus of causality for behavior as external (de Charms, 1968) and then subsequently undermine their sense of autonomy. The use of other external motivators such as evaluations, social pressure and surveillance tends to have the same harming effect (Ryan & Deci, 2016). Likewise, rich and positive feedback can nurture a sense of competence in students, resulting in a higher level of intrinsic motivation; but the lack of it would have the opposite effect (Ryan & Deci, 2016). However, there could be other possible reasons, such as the lack-of-challenge easy contents, one of the unexpected findings of this study. This issue undermined the excitement of learning new things for the students, which could also add to their lack of intrinsic motivation. But it needs further examination to determine the extent of its influence.

The teacher participant has a much weaker perception of these students' lack of intrinsic motivation. In her response, the coverage concerning this point is very low (2.91%), and such responses are only concerned with student interviewee 5 and 4. This difference in perception could be explained by the fact that the teacher judged her students' level of intrinsic motivation mainly through the presence of student engagement (1.64% in coverage), because this is one indicator that is more visible to the teacher than rest of the indicators for having intrinsic motivation.

On the other hand, all student participants also show to a certain extent that they are intrinsically motivated (17.77% in coverage), with having an intrinsic interest being the strongest indicator. Expectedly, student interviewee 2 and 1 stand out on being intrinsically motivated (6.21% and 4.64% in coverage), while the rest of the student participants are less so. Even though these students were all quite negative about receiving proper autonomy support from the teacher, they are more positive about perceiving the provision of structure and emotional support, i.e. interpersonal involvement, especially student interviewee 1 and 2. So, their perception of being provided with structure and interpersonal involvement might be the main reason for them having intrinsic motivations. However, other possible factors, such as the personal characteristics of these students, cannot be discounted either (Wentzel, 2016). The teacher participant shows a quite strong appraisal of these students' intrinsic motivation (10.63%). Again, her judgement was almost solely based on student engagement, since its indicators are mostly outward behaviors, such as verbal participation. However, outward behaviors don't necessarily represent the inward state of the students. A verbally participating student

is not necessarily intrinsically motivated. This is well represented in the example of student interviewee 4:

> Researcher: How often do you talk to your teacher, like asking or answering questions, participating in discussions, etc.?
> Student interviewee 4: Often. Like I ask questions, or if I want to read to the class part of the text, then I will ask to do so.

As the one who displays the most lack of intrinsic motivation and uses external regulation, he is also active in having verbal participation in the class activities. Therefore, the teacher participant might have created a biased report, thus her assessment has to be seen in the light of student report.

Continuum of internalization, or various degree of extrinsic motivation, are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation, with their degree of autonomy increasing in this order (Ryan & Deci, 2016). In this study, all students display some degree of internalization which are identified regulation, introjected regulation, and external regulation. Among them, student interviewee 1 and 3 show the use of all three types of regulation. However, their difference is that, for student interviewee 1, introjected regulation is the most dominant among the three, while for student interviewee 3, it is external regulation. This shows that student interviewee 1 is more autonomous than student interviewee 3. Student interviewee 5 demonstrates having introjected regulation and external regulation, with the latter more strongly represented. This means he might feel more controlled than being autonomous. Student interviewee 4 only shows an external regulation, meaning his autonomy level is the lowest, while student interviewee 2 only demonstrate having identified regulation, which shows the highest degree of autonomy among these three types of extrinsic motivation. Based on this result, if we sequence student participants in an order of a descending degree of autonomy, we will get this picture: student interviewee 2, student interviewee 1, student interviewee 3, student interviewee 5, and finally student interviewee 4.

Again, this is in line with what we have previous discussed about their perception of support: Student interviewee 2 and 1 have much more positive appraisal of teacher's provision of different types of support than the rest of the student participants. It is the same even in the case of perceiving autonomy support from the teacher. They also complained less about a lack of perceived autonomy support than the other three students. However, other potential factors cannot be overlooked. For example, student interviewee 2's introjected regulation is likely to have more relations with her parents rather than the teacher:

> Student interviewee 2: I still want to prove to my family that I can do better. My mom and dad always said that I'm improving a lot because of the school and stuff. But sometimes I feel like I'm still not good enough. I need to keep on doing it.

Here, she is clearly concerned with how her parents view her instead of the view of her teacher.

Future study might gain a clearer picture if, in the context of Finnish IE courses, more student participants of various personal characteristics are included in the study, as well as more teachers of various motivational styles with a focus on their provision of autonomy support and rich positive feedback. In this way, all possible factors that influence students' intrinsic and extrinsic in the targeted context motivation might be better identified.

6.4 Evaluation, limitations and future research

Ensuring reliability and validity is different for qualitative research than for quantitative research, with these two concepts originally being used to serve quantitative research; however, they are adapted for the use of qualitative research with some change of meaning and measurement issues (Bryman, 2012). One such adaptation is made by LeCompte and Goetz (1982). They (1982) divided reliability and validity into four types: external reliability, internal reliability, internal validity, external validity. External reliability refers to the extent to which a study can be replicated through certain strategies suitable for qualitative research. Internal reliability sees if there is more than one observer or researcher fellow agree on the things they see and hear. Internal validity is concerned with the degree of matching between researchers' observations and the theoretical ideas they employ. External validity is about the generalizability of research findings across social settings. The current study is a qualitative case study with a small sample size (S=5), and it aims at learning about the complexity rather than the generalizability of the findings. Therefore, internal reliability and internal validity are the two criteria that suit this study well. Internal reliability is ensured through inter-rater reliability tests, i.e. having another rater to code some portion of the data to check the matching with the codes made by the researcher of this study according to the suggestions by Silverman (2001, 2013). When checking internal validity, related case study tactics developed by Yin (2017) is used.

6.4.1 Internal reliability: inter-rater reliability check

Inter-rater reliability check for semi-structured interviews are done as suggested by Silverman (2001, 2013). It should be done by selecting at least 25% of data from interview transcripts and giving it to a peer to code. The peer and the author code the same transcripts using the same coding frame. After both finish coding, the author runs a coding comparison test between two sets of codes to check the degree of matching.

Due to the limitation of time and resources, as well as the large amount of data and the big number of codes generated through them by me, I slightly adapted this method by selecting 25% of codes and their corresponding data portions, deleting the codes for the peer, presenting them separately along with the coding frame to ensure the same understanding about them. In order to make up to some extent for the limitations caused by this method, 25% of the codes and their corresponding data portions to be selected were equally distributed among codes and data sets on student report on perceived teacher support, student report on their own motivational outcomes, teacher report on provision of teacher support, teacher report on students' motivational outcomes. The Cohen's kappa coefficient values of the coding results of the author, or rater 1, and the peer, or the rater 2, are calculated in Microsoft Excel. For more detailed display of results, see Appendix 5.

The Cohen's kappa coefficient values for student report on perceived teacher support, student report on their own motivational outcomes, teacher report on provision of teacher support, teacher report on students' motivational outcomes are respectively: 0.684 (strength of agreement: good); 0.794 (strength of agreement: good); 0.879 (strength of agreement: very good); 0.641 (strength of agreement: good). The average kappa value is 0.7495, and the strength of agreement is good.

6.4.2 Internal validity: pattern matching and rival explanations

The case study tactic, described by Yin (2017), used to check internal validity suggests the following for the phase of data analysis: do pattern matching; address rival explanations; use logic models; do explanation building. In this study, only the first two tactics are employed to different extent due to the limited time and resources.

Pattern matching refers to the comparison of a pattern gained empirically with a predicted pattern (Yin, 2017). Based on the nature of the research problem and its questions, the researcher may relate patterns emerging from the data to one or more dependent or independent or all variables; the researcher needs to specify whichever single or multiple dependent variables correspond to the relevant results according to a priori proposition drawn from theory, literature, or the researcher's

experience (Yin, 2003, 2009). Almutairi, Adel, Gardner, Glenn, McCarthy, and Alexandra (2014) demonstrates its application, and the following Figure 4 is an illustration of such application:

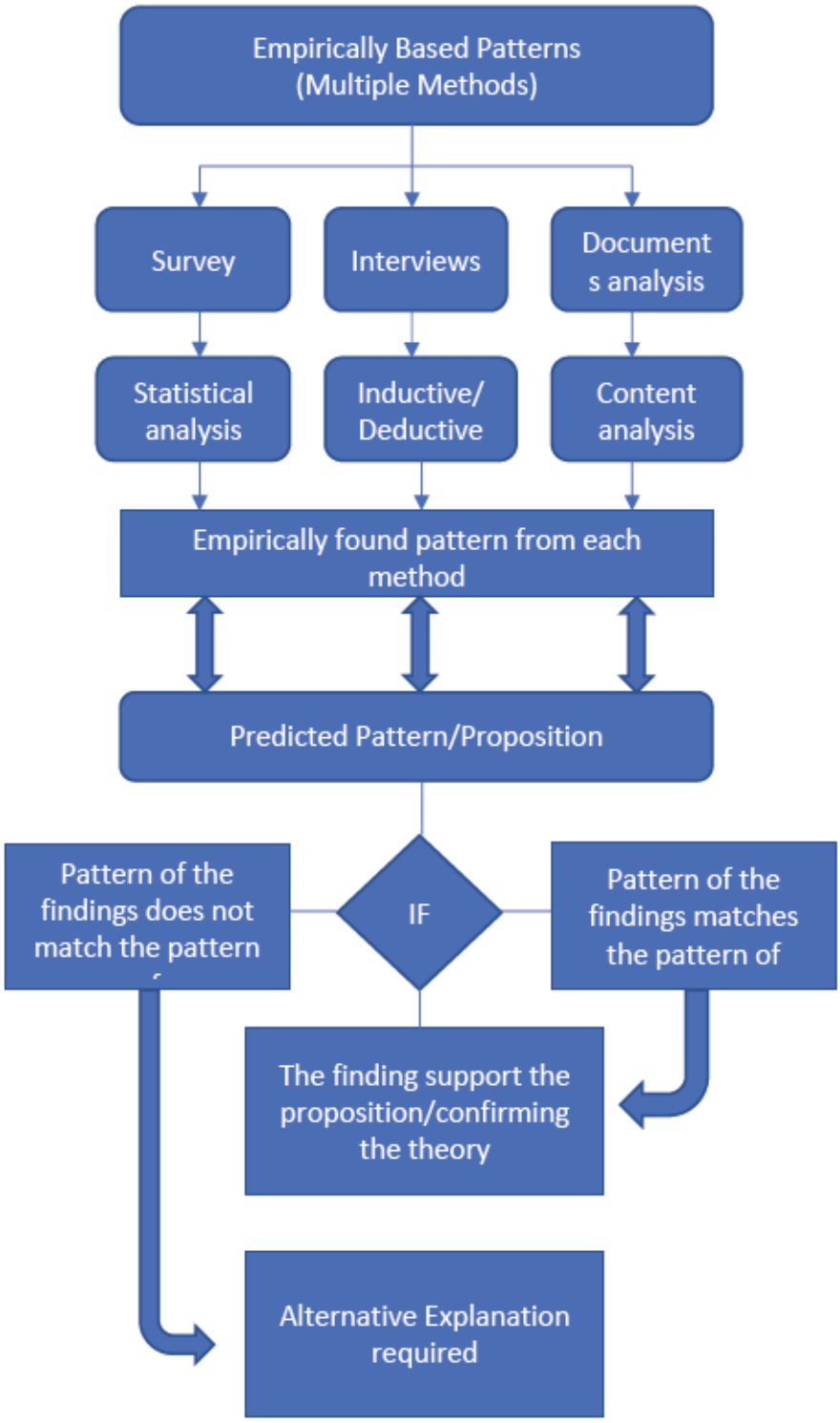

Figure 4: Illustration of the pattern matching process (Almutairi, Adel, Gardner, Glenn, McCarthy, & Alexandra, 2014)

The current study found pattern from the data obtained through semi-structure interviews (see Chapter 5), and compared it to the predicted pattern, or proposition, gained from theoretical

framework (See Chapter 6, Section 6.1-6.3). The empirically found pattern generally match the predicted pattern, thus the theory is confirmed. However, the current study only used one data-collection and analysis method, while case-study projects generally call for multiple methods which can bring about distinct epistemological perspectives simultaneously for a complex and highly-contextualized phenomenon (Almutairi, et. al, 2014). This is one limitation of the current study which could be addressed in future studies.

Addressing plausible rival explanation means defining and testing alternative influences that could result in the observed outcomes (Yin, 2013). Yin (2013) suggests that the researcher needs to have the awareness of the direct rival in advance, then attempts to vigorously collect evidences about the potential rival should be made, with the next step being adopting or rejecting the rival based on its sufficiency or insufficiency. In current study, plausible rival explanations are identified from literature on the theoretical framework used by this study. Then, some evidences are drawn from the data that may fit the rival explanation, and they are discussed in the first three sections of Chapter 6 of this paper with recommendations for future studies made. However, a separate effort of vigorous collection of evidences for plausible rivals was not made due to the limitation of time. Therefore, this can be counted as another limitation of this study that can be avoided in future studies.

Apart from the previously mentioned limitation, other major limitations of this study are the small sample size and a lack of observation over a more extended period of time, given the number of concepts involved in the study. Even though the aim is to study the complexity of the phenomenon rather than test its generalizability, the sample size of 4 students and 1 teacher is still too small and insufficient to help grasp the multifaceted issue. Similarly, as a case study, the lack of a longer period of studying the case prevents the recurrence of patterns from being seen to a greater degree. Therefore, I recommend future research to expand the sample size to include more teachers from different schools and their students, including those who only speaks Finnish, as well as studying them for a more extended period of time using multiple data collection methods, such as ethnographic observation, survey, interviews, document analysis, etc. Only in this way can the findings of the research yield more valuable insights for the academic community, policy-makers, parents, and practitioner in the related field. Other recommendations for future research are given in Section 6.1-6.3 in this chapter.

6.5 Ethical issues

In social research, the ethical issues, or the transgression of ethical principles are typically of four types: harm to participants, a lack of informed consent, an invasion of privacy, and deception (Diener & Grandall, 1978; Bryman, 2012). It is essential for a research that abide by relevant ethical principles to avoid these problems in all phases of the research.

The current study involves under-age students who have their guardians, and an adult teacher who can independently make decisions for herself. When planning the research, I conscientiously considered what kind of data collection method is less intrusive and can avoid causing intentional or unintentional harm to students, whether physically, psychologically or morally. It would have been ideal for the case study to have data from ethnographic observation, but partly because I was aware of my own lack of research experiences and was cautious about possible unintentional harm the approach may bring about to participants, this data collection method was not chosen. Instead, a less intrusive and safer type of semi-structure interview was opted for. Before collecting data, I contacted the subject teacher, students and their guardians, explained to them the research, and asked for their willingness to participate in this research. A quite long period of time was given for them to consider whether they wanted to be a part of the study. After receiving their consent, I contacted the school principal to get a permission. The data collection started only after all these permissions were obtained. When planning the data collection, the dates and places for meeting were agreed upon at the convenience of the participants. When conducting data collection, the interviewees were given the freedom to choose to freely express themselves or not respond to any questions that could possibly make them uncomfortable. The interviews were recorded under participants' consent. Then, when transcribing the interview recording, all names were made anonymous. In order to strengthen the protection of participants' privacy, the school and city name were made anonymous as well.

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Appendix 1. Theoretical framework, concepts, and coding frame for student reports on perceived support from teacher

Theoretical framework	Concepts based on theoretical framework	Perceived support from teacher	Original indicator	Interview questions	Modified indicator
	Emotional support	**Academic support (Johnson, Johnson, Buckman, & Richards, 1985; Wentzel, 1994a)**	My teacher likes to help me learn.	Do you believe your teacher like to help you learn? Why?	- -
		Emotional support/social support (Johnson et al., 1985; Wentzel, Battle, Russel & Looney, 2010)	My teacher likes me as much as she likes other students.	Do you think your teacher like you as much as she like other students?	- -
			My teacher really cares about me.	Do you believe your teacher care about you? Why?	- -
		Teacher involvement/interpersonal involvement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993): affection • Liking • Appreciation • Enjoyment of students	The teacher likes me.	Do you think your teacher like you?	- -
			The teacher appreciates me.	Do you think your teacher appreciate you?	- -
			The teacher is happy when she sees me.	Do you think your teacher is happy when she sees you?	- -
		Teacher involvement/interpersonal involvement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993): attunement • Understanding • Sympathy	The teacher understands me.	Do you think your teacher understand you?	- -
			The teacher will be sympathetic to my problems.	If you have a personal problem or you are in difficulty, do you think	- -

		• Knowledge about the student	The teacher knows me well.	your teacher will be sympathetic to your situation? Do you think your teacher know you well? How much does she know you?	
	Safety and responsiveness	**Safety, negative feedback and lack of nurturance (Weinstein & Marshall, 1984; Wentzel, et al., 2010)**	My teacher makes me feel bad when I don't have the light answer.	Does your teacher make you feel bad if you don't have the right answer? Are you afraid of giving a wrong answer in the class? Why?	- - - -
		Teacher involvement/interpersonal involvement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993): dependability • Availability in case of need	I can get help from the teacher whenever I need it	Do you think if you can get help whenever you need it from your teacher?	- -
		Help (Parker and Asher's, 1993; Wentzel, et al., 2010)	My teacher/ classmates help(s) me so I can get done quicker. My teacher/classmates lend(s) me things if I need them.	Does your teacher help you so that you can get your tasks done more quickly? How? If you need something, like a tool or something, can you	My teacher helps me so I can get done quicker My teacher lends me things if I need them.

Models of multiple dimensions of social support (Wentzel, 2004)	**Help, advice and instruction**			borrow it from your teacher?	
		Teacher involvement/interpersonal involvement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993): dedication of resources • Aid • Time • Energy	The teacher is willing to dedicate her help to me. The teacher is willing to spend time on me. The teacher is willing to spend energy on me.	Is your teacher willing to dedicate her help to you? Is your teacher willing to spend time on you? Is your teacher willing to spend energy on you?	- - - - - -
		Teacher motivation (Feldlaufer, Midgley, & Eccles, 1988); Wentzel, 2002)	The teacher tries to make this class interesting. The teacher likes the subject. The teacher tells us why the subject is important.	Does your teacher try to make this class interesting? Does your teacher like this subject? Does your teacher tell you why this subject is important?	- - - - - -
	Expectations, opportunities and clear communication	**Expectations for positive social behavior (Johnson et al., 1985; Wentzel, et al., 2010)**	In this class, the teacher wants me to share my ideas and materials with other students.	In this class, does the teacher want you to share you ideas and materials with other students?	- -
		Expectations for academic engagement (Weinstein & Marshall, 1984;	The teacher calls on me to answer questions.	Do you think your teacher will be happy to see you	- - - -

		Wentzel, et al., 2010)	The teacher expects me to learn new things.	answer questions?	
				Do you think your teacher would hope you can learn new things?	- -
			The teacher trusts me. (Weinstein & Marshall,1984)	Do you think your teacher trust you?	
		Fairness/democratic communication (Feldlaufer et al., 1988; Wentzel, 2002)	The teacher treats boys and girls differently.	Does the teacher treat boys and girls differently?	- -
			The teacher grades our work fairly.	Does the teacher grade your work fairly?	- -
			The teacher treats some kids better than others.	Does the teacher treat all kids equally? Or some better than others?	
		Clarity of expectations (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	I know what the teacher expects of me.	Do you know your teacher's expectation for you? How do you know?	- -
		Rule-setting/control (Moos & Moos, 1981; Wentzel, 2002)	There is a clear set of rules for students to follow.	Is there a clear set of rules for students to follow?	- -
			The teacher explains what will happen if a student breaks a rule.	Does the teacher explain what will happen if a student breaks a rule?	- -
		Consistency (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	The teacher is consistent with the rule.	Is your teacher consistent with the rule?	

		Predictability of responses (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	I can predict your teacher's response if you do something good or bad.	Can you predict your teacher's response if you do something good or bad?	- -
	Structure	**Instrumental help and support (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)**	My teacher/ classmates help(s) me so I can get done quicker. My teacher/classmates lend(s) me things if I need them.	Does your teacher help you so that you can get your tasks done more quickly? How? If you need something, like a tool or something, can you borrow it from your teacher?	My teacher helps me so I can get done quicker. My teacher lends me things if I need them.
		Adjustment of teaching strategies (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	- -	- -	- -
		Rich feedback regarding effectiveness (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	The teacher gives rich feedback to my learning and performance.	Do you get feedback for your learning and performances ? What kind of feedback? Rich or not?	- -
		Coercive behaviour (Skinner & Belmont, 1993) • control through force or authority	My teacher controls through force or authority My teacher tries to control everything I do.	Does your teacher control you through force or authority? Like "You have to do this, because I say so"? Does your teacher	- - - -

				control everything you do?	
		Internal perceived locus of causality (Reeve & Jang, 2006)	While doing class activities, I felt I was doing what I wanted to be doing.	When doing the class activities, do you feel you are doing something you want to do or forced to do?	- -
Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2016)		**Respect (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)**	The teacher acknowledges the importance of students' opinions, feelings and agendas.	Does your teacher acknowledge the importance of your opinions, feelings, and plans?	- -
		Choice (Reeve & Jang, 2006; Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	The teacher encourages students to follow their own interest.	Does your teacher encourages you to follow your own interest?	- -
			The teacher provides options.	Do you have different options for learning activities or homework? Or only one option?	- -
			Throughout the puzzle solving, I had choices about what I would do next.	Do you have choices about what you would do during the learning activities?	
	Autonomy support	**Relevance (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)**	The teacher provides a rationale for	Does your teacher tell you why you would do	- -

			learning activities	such and such activities or homework? Like talking about how necessary or beneficial it is to do it?	
		Volition (i.e. unpressurized sense of freedom) (Reeve & Jang, 2006)	While doing class activity, I feel free.	Do you feel free when doing class activities?	- -
		Teacher's motivational styles (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999): highly controlling	Teacher identifies a solution and uses tangible **extrinsic motivators** to encourage appropriate behaviors.	When the teacher tell you to do a learning activity or a homework, and if you are not so much interested in it or you find it difficult, how does your teacher motivate you so that you can try to fix the problem?	- -
		Teacher's motivational styles (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999): moderately controlling	The teacher identifies a solution and encourages its implementation by **appealing to the child's internalized sense of obligation** (e.g.: "do what you should") or to what others think is right (e.g. "It is for your own good.")	When the teacher tell you to do a learning activity or a homework, and if you are not so much interested in it or you find it difficult, how does your teacher motivate you so that you can try to fix the problem?	- -

		Teacher's motivational styles (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999): moderately autonomy-supportive	The teacher **encourages the child to empathize with how his or her peers** understand, diagnose, and solve the same problem.	When the teacher tell you to do a learning activity or a homework, and if you are not so much interested in it or you find it difficult, how does your teacher motivate you so that you can try to fix the problem?	- -
		Teacher's motivational styles (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999): highly autonomy-supportive	The teacher **encourages the child to diagnose the problem, generate a solution, and try it out for himself or herself.**	When the teacher tell you to do a learning activity or a homework, and if you are not so much interested in it or you find it difficult, how does your teacher motivate you so that you can try to fix the problem?	- -

Appendix 2. Theoretical framework, concepts, and coding frame for student reports on students' motivational outcomes

Theoretical framework	Concepts based on theoretical framework	Students' motivational outcomes	Original indicator	Interview questions	Modified indicator
	Social goal pursuit (Wentzel, 1993)	Prosocial goals (i.e. help; share; cooperate) (Wentzel, 1994a)			
		• students' efforts to share and to help peers with *social* problems	I often try to be nice to kids when something bad has happened to them.	How often do you try to be nice to kids when something bad has happened to them?	- -
		• students' efforts to share and to help peers with *academic* problems	I often try to share what I've learned with my classmates.	How often do you try to share what you've learned with your classmates?	- -
			I often try to help my classmates solve a problem once I've figure it out.	How often do you try to help your classmates solve a problem once you've figured it out?	- -
		Social responsibility goals (i.e. follow rules; keep commitment) (Wentzel, 1994a)			
		• peer social responsibility	I often try to keep promises that I've made to other kids.	How often do you try to keep promises that you've made to other kids?	- -
		• academic social responsibility	I often try to do what my teacher asks me to do.	How often do you try to do what your teacher asks you to do?	- -
		Mastery goals (Wentzel, 1993)			

		Motivation pattern (Ames, 1992):			
		• **focus on effort and learning**	I focus on you own effort and learning new things in this class.	Do you focus on you own effort and learning new things in this class?	- -
		• **high intrinsic interest in activity**	I'm very interested in the learning activities and the topics in this class.	How much are you interested in the learning activities and the topics in this class?	- -
		• **attributions to effort-based strategies**	I do well in this class because I make efforts.	When you do well in something in this class, what do you believe help you to do well? Do you think because you make efforts?	- -
		• **use of effective learning and other self-regulatory strategies**	- -	How do you learn? Do you think they play a role in your performance?	- -
Models of multiple dimensions of social support (2004)		• **active engagement**	I participate actively in this class.	Do you think you participate actively in this class? Or you don't want to?	- -
		• **positive affect on high effort/ challenging task**	- -	Have you encounter any challenges in this class? What was your feeling?	- -
		• **feeling of belongingness**	I feel I belong to this community.	Do you think you belong to this community?	- -
		• **failure tolerance/ adaptive**	- -	Have you failed in any aspect in this class? What was	- -

		coping responses after failure		your feeling? What will you do if you fail again?	
	Academic goal pursuit (Wentzel, 1993)	• **self-efficacy (Patrick, Kaplan & Ryan, 2011)**	I'm good at this subject. I know a lot.	Do you think you are good at this subject?	- -
		• **not cheating (Patrick, Kaplan & Ryan, 2011)**	- -	If there is an exam for this course, and there are somethings you don't know. Will you cheat? If there is a homework for you, will you do it as required or find some other easy way to finish it and make teacher happy?	- -
		• **satisfaction with learning (Patrick, Kaplan & Ryan, 2011)**	I'm satisfied with my own learning.	Are you satisfied with your own learning in this class?	- -
		Performance goals (Wentzel, 1993)			
		Motivational and behavioural consequences (Patrick, Kaplan & Ryan, 2011):			
		• **procrastinating**	I often procrastinate in finishing a task for this class.	Have you ever procrastinated in finishing a task for this class? How often do you do that?	- -
		• **disruptiveness**	I often break rules of this class.	Do you often break the rules of the class?	- -
		• **not asking for help when it is needed**	I don't ask help from teacher or classmates.	Do you ask for help from teacher	- -

				or classmates if you need it?	
		• **negative affect about school**	I dislike this course.	Do you dislike this course?	- -
		Goal orientation beliefs (Wentzel, 1993): • **evaluation-oriented belief** • **social-responsibility-oriented belief** • **mastery oriented belief**	To show how smart I am. This is what I'm supposed to do. Learning is fun and exciting.	What is the reason that you want to perform well/ get good grades in this class? (Wentzel, 1993)	- - - - - -
		Enjoyment (Ryan & Deci, 2016) **Fun (Ryan & Deci, 2016)** **Effort (Ryan & Deci, 2016)** **Interest (Ryan & Deci, 2016)**	Because it's fun. Because I enjoy it. I want to make efforts for it. I'm interested in it. This class holds my full and constant attention. I feel a constant curiosity. The tasks are pleasant and I'm happy to do them.	Why do you complete the homework or engage in classroom activities? (Ryan & Deci, 2016) Do you think this class is interesting and that you enjoy attending it? (Reeve & Jang, 2006)	- - - - - - - - - - - -
		Satisfaction with school (Epstein & McPartland, 1978)	I like school very much. I'm very happy when I'm in school. Most of the time I don't want to go to school.	Do you like your Islamic Education course? What is your feeling in Islamic Education class? Does it happen to you that you don't want to go to	I like my Islamic Education course very much. I'm very happy when I'm in that class. Most of the time I don't want to go to

				Islamic Education class?	the Islamic Education class.
		Commitment to classwork (Epstein & McPartland, 1978)	I always do something exciting in this class.	Is there anything that make you excited in this class?	- -
	Intrinsic motivation		Most of the topics we study in this class end too soon.	Do you feel that the class sessions or topics are too long or too short or just the right amount for you?	- -
		Interest in school (Ford & Tisak, 1982)	The school is not a waste of time.	Do you think this class is a waste of time?	This class is not a waste of time.
			I have discovered some new interest in school this year.	Have you discovered some new interest in this class?	I have discovered some new interest in this class this year.
Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2016)		Interest in class (Wentzel, 1998)	I work hard for this class.	How hard do you really try in Islamic Education class?	- -
			I make efforts to learn for this class.	Do you make efforts to learn for this class?	- -
			I pay good attention in this class.	How often do you really pay attention in Islamic education class?	- -
			I can keep on engaging in throughout the class.	Can you keep on engaging in what's going on in this class throughout the whole session? (Wellborn, 1991)	- -
			I never think about other things	Do you think about other things when you are in	

			when I'm in this class.	this class? (Wellborn, 1991)	
			I really don't care what happens in this class.	Do you care what happens in this class?	- -
		Student engagement (Wellborn, 1991)	When I'm in this class, I feel happy.	Do you feel happy, interested, sad, anxious, or bored in this class? What is your feeling?	- -
			I often talk to the teacher by asking or answering questions or participating in discussions.	How often do you talk to the teacher during the class, like asking or answering questions, participating in discussions, etc.?	- -
		Integrated regulation (i.e. integration of value)	Because it's good for me. (Ryan & Deci, 2016)	Why do you complete the homework or engage in classroom activities? (Ryan & Deci, 2016)	- -
			Because it can compliment my other interested areas. (Ryan & Deci, 2016)		- -
		Identified regulation (i.e. identification with value; self-valued goal; personal importance)	Because I want to understand the subject. (Ryan & Connell, 1989)	Why do you complete the homework or engage in classroom activities? (Ryan & Deci, 2016)	- -
			Because I want to learn new things. (Ryan & Connell, 1989)		- -
			To find out if I'm right or wrong. (Ryan & Connell, 1989)		- -
			Because I think it's important		- -

			to… (Ryan & Connell, 1989) Because I wouldn't want (like) to do that (negative behavior). (Ryan & Connell, 1989)		
	Continuum of internalisation (i.e. extrinsic motivation) (Ryan & Deci, 2016)	Introjected regulation (i.e. self- & other-approval / disapproval)	Because I want the teacher to think I'm a good student. (Ryan & Connell, 1989) Because I will feel bad about myself if I don't. (Ryan & Connell, 1989) Because I'll feel ashamed of myself if I don't. (Ryan & Connell, 1989) Because I want the other students to think I'm smart. (Ryan & Connell, 1989) Because it bothers me when I don't. (Ryan & Connell, 1989) Because I want people to like me. (Ryan & Connell, 1989)	Why do you complete the homework or engage in classroom activities? (Ryan & Deci, 2016)	- - - - - - - - - - - -
		External regulation (i.e. rule following; pursuit of reward; avoidance of punishment)	Because I'll get in trouble if I don't. (Ryan & Connell, 1989) Because that's what I'm supposed to do.	Why do you complete the homework or engage in classroom activities? (Ryan & Deci, 2016)	- - - -

(Ryan & Connell, 1989)

So that the teacher won't yell at me. (Ryan & Connell, 1989)

Because that's the rule. (Ryan & Connell, 1989)

So others won't get mad at me. (Ryan & Connell, 1989)

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Appendix 3. Theoretical framework, concepts, and coding frame for teacher report on teacher's provision of support to students

Theoretical framework	Concepts based on theoretical framework	Perceived support from teacher	Interview questions
	Emotional support	**Emotional support/social support (Johnson et al., 1985; Wentzel, Battle, Russel & Looney, 2010)**	How do you try to support your students emotionally?
		Teacher involvement/interpersonal involvement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993): affection • Liking • Appreciation • Enjoyment of students	How much would you like to have this student in your class again next year? (Wentzel,1994a; Wentzel & Asher,1995)
		Teacher involvement/interpersonal involvement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993): attunement • Understanding • Sympathy • Knowledge about the student	How much do you know about your individual students? To what extent do you think you understand them? Do you sympathize with their difficulties, frustrations, or sometimes anger?
	Safety and responsiveness	**Safety, negative feedback and lack of nurturance (Weinstein & Marshall, 1984; Wentzel, et al., 2010)**	What is your typical reaction when students don't have a right answer?
		Teacher involvement/interpersonal involvement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993): dependability	Are you available in case of every student's need?

Models of multiple dimensions of social support (Wentzel, 2004)		• Availability in case of need	
	Help, advice and instruction	**Help (Parker and Asher's, 1993; Wentzel, et al., 2010)**	When a student encounters difficulties in your class, what do you usually do?
		Teacher involvement/interpersonal involvement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993): dedication of resources • Aid • Time • Energy	How much aid, time, and energy do you think you dedicate to teach and engage your students?
		Teacher motivation (Feldlaufer, Midgley, & Eccles, 1988; Wentzel, 2002)	Do you like this subject? How important do you think this subject is? Do you think making this class interesting is important or useful in teaching this subject?
	Expectations, opportunities and clear communication	**Expectations for positive social behaviors (Johnson et al., 1985; Wentzel, et al., 2010)**	What are your expectations in terms of your students' social behaviors?
		Expectations for academic engagement (Weinstein & Marshall, 1984; Wentzel, et al., 2010)	What are your expectations in terms of your students' studies?
		Fairness/democratic communication (Feldlaufer et al., 1988; Wentzel, 2002)	Do you communicate your expectations? How do you communicate? Do students know what you expect of them? Do you think there is any difference in teaching girls and boys,

			fast learners and slow learners?
	Structure	**Clarity of expectations (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)**	What kind of students do you like best?
		Rule-setting/control (Moos & Moos, 1981; Wentzel, 2002)	Is there a set rule for your class?
		Consistency (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	To what extent are you consistent with the rules you set during teaching or about class work?
		Predictability of responses (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	Do you think your students can anticipate a typical response from you when they say something, ask something, do something, or not do something, either good or bad, e.g. participate actively, or breaking rules.
		Instrumental help and support (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	Do you set goals for your students? How do you ensure they know how to reach that goal?
		Adjustment of teaching strategies (Skinner & Belmont, 1993) **Rich feedback regarding effectiveness (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)**	Do you change your teaching strategies? In what situations and why? How do you give feedback to their performances? Do you prefer positive, reassuring, constructive feedback or negative feedbacks that remind them of bad consequences?

Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2016)	**Autonomy support**	**Coercive behaviour (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)** • control through force or authority	How much autonomy you give to your students? How?
		Respect (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	How do you deal with students' opinions, feelings, preferences, agendas, etc.?
		Choice (Reeve & Jang, 2006; Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	How many options do you offer to your students during learning activities, or for homework, or for exams?
		Relevance (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	Do you explain why you carry out such and such learning activities?
		Teacher's motivational styles (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999): highly controlling	Recall an actual classroom experience from this week in which you attempted to teach and motivate a disengaged student. A disengaged student is one who is behaviourally passive or who shows negative emotion such as boredom. Picture in your mind one specific, recent teacher-student interaction, and in a sentence or two please describe below the disengaged student you have in mind. How did you approach and interact with the student? What did you do? What did you say? What did you try to accomplish?

		Teacher's motivational styles (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999): moderately controlling	Recall an actual classroom experience from this week in which you attempted to teach and motivate a disengaged student. A disengaged student is one who is behaviorally passive or who shows negative emotion such as boredom. Picture in your mind one specific, recent teacher-student interaction, and in a sentence or two please describe below the disengaged student you have in mind. How did you approach and interact with the student? What did you do? What did you say? What did you try to accomplish?
		Teacher's motivational styles (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999): moderately autonomy-supportive	Recall an actual classroom experience from this week in which you attempted to teach and motivate a disengaged student. A disengaged student is one who is behaviorally passive or who shows negative emotion such as boredom. Picture in your mind one specific, recent teacher-student interaction, and in a sentence or two please describe below the disengaged student you have in mind. How did you approach and interact with the student? What did you do? What did you say? What did you try to accomplish?
		Teacher's motivational styles	Recall an actual classroom experience

		(Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999): highly autonomy-supportive	from this week in which you attempted to teach and motivate a disengaged student. A disengaged student is one who is behaviorally passive or who shows negative emotion such as boredom. Picture in your mind one specific, recent teacher-student interaction, and in a sentence or two please describe below the disengaged student you have in mind. How did you approach and interact with the student? What did you do? What did you say? What did you try to accomplish?

Appendix 4. Theoretical framework, concepts, and coding frame for teacher report on students' motivational outcomes

Theoretical framework	Concepts based on theoretical framework	Perceived students' motivational outcomes	Interview questions
Models of multiple dimensions of social support (Wentzel, 2004)	Social goal pursuit (Wentzel, 1993)	Prosocial goals (i.e. help; share; cooperate) (Wentzel & Asher,1995; Wentzel,1994a)	
		• students' efforts to share and to help peers with *social* problems	How often is this student considerate of others? (Wentzel & Asher,1995; Wentzel,1994a)
		• students' efforts to share and to help peers with *academic* problems	How often does this student help other children learn? (Wentzel & Asher,1995; Wentzel,1994a)
		Social responsibility goals (i.e. follow rules; keep commitment) (Wentzel, 1994a)	
		• peer social responsibility	How often does this student fight with others, lose his or her temper? (Wentzel & Asher,1995; Wentzel,1994a)
		• academic social responsibility	How often does this student follow classroom rules, act responsibly? (Wentzel & Asher,1995; Wentzel,1994a)
		Mastery goals (Wentzel, 1993) Motivation pattern(Ames, 1992):	Why do you think this student learn for this class, for gaining competence or showing competence?

	Academic goal pursuit (Wentzel, 1993)	• focus on effort and learning • high intrinsic interest in activity • attributions to effort-based strategies • use of effective learning and other self-regulatory strategies	Do you think this student is a good self-regulatory learner? (Wentzel&Asher,1995) Can this student work independently? (Wentzel&Asher,1995) How self-assured is this student? (Wentzel&Asher,1995) How often does this student act impulsively, without thinking? (Wentzel&Asher,1995)
		• positive affect on high effort/ challenging task • active engagement • feeling of belongingness • failure tolerance/ adaptive coping responses after failure • self-efficacy (Patrick, Kaplan & Ryan, 2011) • not cheating (Patrick, Kaplan & Ryan, 2011) • satisfaction with learning (Patrick, Kaplan & Ryan, 2011) Performance goals (Wentzel, 1993)	

		Motivational and behavioural consequences (Patrick, Kaplan & Ryan, 2011): • **procrastinating** • **disruptiveness** • **not asking for help when it is needed** • **negative affect about school** **Goal orientation beliefs (Wentzel, 1993):** • **evaluation-oriented belief** • **social-responsibility-oriented belief** • **mastery oriented belief**	
Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000;	**Intrinsic motivation**	**Enjoyment (Ryan & Deci, 2016)** **Fun (Ryan & Deci, 2016)** **Effort (Ryan & Deci, 2016)** **Interest (Ryan & Deci, 2016)** **Satisfaction with school (Epstein & McPartland, 1978)** **Commitment to classwork (Epstein & McPartland, 1978)**	How often does this student show concern with evaluation? (Wentzel&Asher,1995)

Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2016)			
		Interest in school (Ford & Tisak, 1982); Interest in class (Wentzel, 1998)	How often does this student show an interest in the class work? (Wentzel&Asher,199)
		Student engagement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)	
		• **Effort**	How long time does this student spend on studying this subject? When faced with difficulties, what would be the attitude of this student?
		• **Attention**	How well does this student focus in the class? Does this student have a wandering mind in the class?
		• **Persistence**	Can this student sustain his focus and effort during the initiation and execution of the learning activities? Does he/she give up or try?
		• **Emotional reactions**	What kind of emotions does this student show in the class, e.g. interest, boredom, happiness, sadness, anxiety, anger, etc.?
		• **Verbal participation**	How often does this student talk to you in the class, e.g. asking or answering questions, participating in discussions, etc.?

	Continuum of internalisation (i.e. extrinsic motivation) (Ryan & Deci, 2016)	Integrated regulation (i.e. integration of value) Identified regulation (i.e. identification with value; self-valued goal; personal importance) Introjected regulation (i.e. self- & other- approval / disapproval) External regulation (i.e. rule following; pursuit of reward; avoidance of punishment)[SEP]

Appendix 5. Inter-rater reliability test: Cohen's kappa

I: Student report on perceived teacher support: (number of data sets: 37)

- Perceived autonomy support;
- Perceived Emotional Support;
- Perceived safety

A. Choice
B. Lack of choice
C. Moderately autonomy-supportive
D. Moderately controlling
E. Academic support
F. Affection
G. Attunement
H. Safety
I. Coercive behavior

Note: Vertical: rater 1(researcher); Horizontal: rater 2 (assistant rater)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	Total
A	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
B	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	**4**
C	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	**2**
D	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	**7**
E	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	**2**
F	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	**3**
G	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	**5**
H	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	0	**5**
I	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	6	**9**

Total	**1**	**7**	**1**	**6**	**3**	**2**	**6**	**4**	**7**	**37**

Number of observed agreements: 27 (72.97% of the observations)

Number of agreements expected by chance: 5.3 (14.39% of the observations)

Kappa= 0.684

SE of kappa = 0.085

95% confidence interval: From 0.518 to 0.851

The strength of agreement is considered to be 'good'.

II. Student report on their own motivational outcomes: (number of data sets: 38)

- Academic goal pursuit(Mastery goal pursuit);
- Goal orientation beliefs;
- Social goal pursuit (prosocial goal pursuit: social; academic);
- Intrinsic motivation (interest);
- Continuum of internalization/extrinsic motivation (external motivation)

A. Attributions to effort-based strategies
B. Active engagement
C. Feeling of belongingness
D. Self-efficacy
E. Evaluation-oriented beliefs
F. Mastery-oriented beliefs
G. Social-responsibility-oriented beliefs
H. Prosocial goal pursuit (social):
I. Prosocial goal pursuit (academic):
J. Interest:
K. External regulation

Note: Vertical: rater 1(researcher); Horizontal: rater 2 (assistant rater)

	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**	**H**	**I**	**J**	**K**	**Total**
A	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	**4**
B	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	**5**

C	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	**5**
D	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	**6**
E	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	**2**
F	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	**2**
G	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	**2**
H	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	**2**
I	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	**2**
J	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	**5**
K	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	**3**
Total	**4**	**2**	**4**	**6**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**6**	**6**	**38**

Number of observed agreements: 31 (81.58% of the observations)

Number of agreements expected by chance: 3.9 (10.39% of the observations)

Kappa= 0.794

SE of kappa = 0.070

95% confidence interval: From 0.658 to 0.931

The strength of agreement is considered to be 'good'.

III. Teacher report on provision of teacher support (number of data sets: 11)

- Emotional support;
- Help, advice and instruction;
- Autonomy support;
- Safety and responsiveness;
- Structure

A. Affection

B. Attunement

C. Help

D. Highly controlling motivational style

E. Safety

F. Predictability of responses

Note: Vertical: rater 1(researcher); Horizontal: rater 2 (assistant rater)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	Total
A	1	0	0	0	0	0	**1**
B	0	2	1	0	0	0	**3**
C	0	0	4	0	0	0	**4**
D	0	0	0	1	0	0	**1**
E	0	0	0	0	1	0	**1**
F	0	0	0	0	0	1	**1**
Total	**1**	**2**	**5**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**11**

Number of observed agreements: 10 (90.91% of the observations)

Number of agreements expected by chance: 2.7 (24.79% of the observations)

Kappa= 0.879

SE of kappa = 0.117

95% confidence interval: From 0.650 to 1.000

The strength of agreement is considered to be 'very good'.

IV. Teacher report on students' motivational outcomes (number of data sets: 11)

- Academic goal pursuit (Mastery goal pursuit)
- Intrinsic motivation;
- Social goal pursuit;
- Continuum of internalization/extrinsic motivation

A. Self-efficacy

B. Student engagement (verbal participation)

C. Academic social responsibility goal pursuit

D. Extrinsic motivation

Note: Vertical: rater 1(researcher); Horizontal: rater 2 (assistant rater)

	A	B	C	D	Total
A	2	0	0	0	**2**
B	2	1	0	0	**3**
C	0	0	3	1	**4**
D	0	0	0	2	**2**
Total	**4**	**1**	**3**	**3**	**11**

Number of observed agreements: 8 (72.73% of the observations)

Number of agreements expected by chance: 2.6 (23.97% of the observations)

Kappa= 0.641

SE of kappa = 0.164

95% confidence interval: From 0.319 to 0.964

The strength of agreement is considered to be 'good'.

Average kappa value: 0.7495

Strength of agreement: good